

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ЖИТОМИРСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
імені ІВАНА ФРАНКА**

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**ОСНОВИ НАУКОВОЇ КОМУНІКАЦІЇ
ІНОЗЕМНОЮ МОВОЮ**

**навчально-методичне забезпечення для студентів-
магістрантів гуманітарних спеціальностей вищих
навчальних закладів**

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У посібнику коротко викладені теоретичні питання основ наукової комунікації іноземною мовою, запропоновано комплекс вправ для розвитку вмінь усного та писемного спілкування відповідно до стандартів сучасного англомовного наукового дискурсу.

Видання призначено для студентів-магістрантів та викладачів.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Згідно законодавства України про вищу освіту, найважливіше завдання вищих навчальних закладів полягає у підготовці наукових кадрів вищої кваліфікації, а також конкурентоспроможних фахівців, здатних здійснювати професійну діяльність на демократичних та гуманістичних засадах; забезпеченні розвитку та самореалізації особистості, задоволенні її освітніх, наукових і духовно-культурних потреб.

Підготовка в закладі вищої освіти передбачає оволодіння студентами теоретичними та прикладними знаннями, технологіями формування фахових умінь, досягнення професійної майстерності. У даному посібнику ми пропонуємо технологію розвитку та вдосконалення вищезазначених компонентів.

Виходячи з вимог Закону України „Про вищу освіту” до освітньо-кваліфікаційного рівня „магістр”, запропонований курс концентрує увагу на двох основних аспектах:

- 1) створенні технології, яка спрямована на систематизацію та вдосконалення комунікативних, лінгвістичних і психолого-педагогічних, знань і умінь майбутніх фахівців;
- 2) розробці завдань для здійснення контролю професійних знань і умінь майбутніх фахівців.

Запропонований курс побудовано з урахуванням сучасних тенденцій розвитку дисциплін лінгвістичного циклу. Він має сприяти ефективному формуванню професійних умінь, систематизації знань, становленню майбутніх фахівців плідними учасниками міжкультурної комунікації.

1. Організаційно-методичний розділ

1.1. Цільове призначення курсу „Основи наукової комунікації іноземною мовою” передбачає систематизацію знань з основ психології, риторики, логіки, мов (рідної та іноземної), стилістики з метою орієнтації майбутнього спеціаліста в широкому колі загальних проблем комунікації в

сучасному суспільстві. Курс спрямовано на набуття студентами знань у сфері комунікації, які їм необхідні не тільки під час навчання у ВНЗ, але й в умовах самостійної професійної діяльності. У змісті курсу розкриваються основні тенденції сучасних технологій ділового та наукового спілкування, особливості основних інформаційних каналів, виявляються фактори, які впливають на процес взаємодії з різними суспільними групами, розв'язуються проблеми організації та проведення наукових презентацій.

Отже, курс формує цілісне уявлення про основні види комунікації, сфери їх застосування, сутність і функції наукової презентації, культуру спілкування, психологічні особливості комунікантів; формує презентаційні вміння; зміцнює основи комунікативної компетентності майбутнього фахівця у галузі науки.

1.2. Завдання курсу:

1. Визначити роль наукової комунікації в діяльності майбутнього фахівця.

2. Сприяти формуванню у студентів установки на постійний пошук і застосування лінгвістичних, психолого-педагогічних, соціально-економічних та інших знань для розв'язання професійних ситуацій. З цією метою:

- розкривати сутність понятійно-термінологічного апарату наукової комунікації;
- розвивати творчий потенціал студентів за допомогою спеціально розробленої системи занять;
- допомагати становленню особистісної професійно-моральної позиції.

3. Вдосконалити лінгвістичну та комунікативну компетенції студентів з англійської мови, у тому числі у професійній та науковій сферах спілкування.

1.3. Місце дисципліни у професійній підготовці магістранта.

В освітній програмі університету курс орієнтовано на формування когнітивного простору майбутньої професійної діяльності студентів. Курс розраховано на один семестр.

1.4. Вимоги до рівня засвоєння змісту дисципліни:

У результаті засвоєння матеріалу в студентів мають бути сформовані:

знання:

- понятійного апарату;
- особливостей наукового та офіційного стилю;
- закономірностей та специфіки організації наукової

комунікації;

уміння:

- підготовки і проведення наукової комунікації;
- аналізу проблеми теорії і практики комунікації в

сучасному контексті.

2. Об'єм курсу, види навчальної роботи, форма поточного, тематичного та підсумкового контролю

Курс розрахований на один семестр (50 годин) підготовки магістранта і організований за трьома режимами роботи:

1) лекційний режим (teacher-centred mode) для проведення лекційних занять з курсу;

2) практично-семінарський режим (practical class mode), який базується на вивченні слухачами теоретичних положень з теми та розв'язанні типових навчальних ситуацій, завдань;

3) індивідуальний режим (individual mode), який використовується для самостійної роботи, відвідування презентацій, проведення досліджень.

Провідною ідеєю курсу є акцент на систематизації, вдосконаленні й закріпленні мовленнєвої та психолого-педагогічної підготовки майбутнього фахівця. З цією метою студентам пропонуються:

- плани лекцій;
- списки рекомендованої літератури;
- опорна інформація з кожної теми;
- питання для самоконтролю знань;

- глосарій термінів;
- питання для обговорення;
- завдання для виконання.

Характеристика навчального курсу
“Основи наукової комунікації іноземною мовою”

Напрямок, спеціальність, освітньо-кваліфікаційний рівень	Характеристика навчального курсу
Напрямок: <i>гуманітарні спеціальності</i> Освітньо-кваліфікаційний рівень: <i>магістр</i>	Кількість кредитів ECTS: <i>1</i> Загальна кількість годин: <i>50</i> Тип курсу: <i>обов'язковий</i> Рік підготовки: <i>5</i> Семестр: <i>9</i> Лекційні заняття: <i>12 год.</i> Практичні заняття: <i>10 год.</i> Індивідуальна робота: <i>22 год.</i> Модулів: <i>2</i> Змістових модулів: <i>6</i> Залікових кредитів: <i>1</i> Вид контролю: <i>підсумковий залік</i>

Структура залікового кредиту курсу
„Основи наукової комунікації іноземною мовою”

Theme	Teaching Mode	Hours
The essence of language communication	teacher-centred	2
	practical class	2
	individual	4
Science communication: the evolution of forms, principles of organization	teacher-centred	2

	individual	6
Models of communication	teacher-centred	2
	practical class	2
	individual	4
Language as the medium of human communication	teacher-centred	2
	practical class	2
	individual	4
Conversational communication and types of communicative messages: verbal, non-verbal	teacher-centred	2
	practical class	2
Pragmatic aspect of language communication	teacher-centred	2
	practical class	2
	individual	4
Sum total		38

Аудиторних занять (год.)	28
З них – лекцій \ практичних занять	12 \ 10
Індивідуальна робота	22
Аудиторні модульні контрольні роботи	4
Залік	2
Всього	50

Підготовка згідно програми курсу розпочинається з вивчення загальних питань теорії комунікації, розмежування

наукової комунікації та інших видів професійного спілкування, психологічних аспектів комунікативної діяльності.

Основою підготовки є набуття знань і формування умінь підготовки та проведення наукової комунікації та професійних презентацій. На цій стадії навчання слухачам пропонуються завдання для систематизації і закріплення здобутих знань.

Наступний етап навчання – проведення тематичного контролю з метою визначення відповідності рівня засвоєних знань і сформованих умінь вимогам програми курсу.

Подальші заняття присвячені доповненню знань і вдосконаленню вмінь.

Завершальним етапом роботи є іспит.

Поточний, модульний та підсумковий контроль.

Поточний контроль здійснюється викладачем на кожному практичному занятті через перевірку виконання запропонованих завдань.

Для проведення модульного контролю студентам пропонується тест, який передбачає перевірку засвоєного теоретичного матеріалу і вмінь застосовувати отримані знання в умовах певної навчальної ситуації. Тестування проводиться на окремому занятті. На наступному занятті передбачається аналіз контрольної роботи.

Формою підсумкового контролю є залік. Залікова атестація складається з трьох компонентів:

1. Відвідування і робота на практичних заняттях.
2. Виконання індивідуальної роботи.
3. Результати поточного, модульного та підсумкового контролю.

Система рейтингового оцінювання всіх видів роботи

№ з/п	Види навчальної діяльності студента	Ваговий бал	Рейтингова оцінка	Критерії оцінки
1	Робота на	30	10	Правильна

	практичному занятті (середня оцінка за семестр)			грунтова відповідь, творче висвітлення проблеми. Студент володіє 90–100% теоретичних знань та вміє легко застосовувати їх на практиці
			8	Правильна, але не достатньо повна відповідь (питання висвітлене на 75-89%)
			6	Питання висвітлене поверхово (50-74%)
			4	Відповідь неправильна
			0	Студент не був присутнім на жодному занятті
2	Аудиторні модульні контрольні роботи	20	10	Студент самостійно глибоко підійшов до вирішення

				проблеми. Питання розкриті на 90–100%
			5	Студент розкрив основну суть проблеми (на 75–89%), але має певні недоліки
			3	Студент має загальне уявлення про проблему (на 50–70% володіє інформацією)
			2	Студент не розкрив проблему
			0	Студент не виконав жодного завдання контрольної роботи
3	Залік (підсумкове тестування по темі; перевірка завдань для індивідуальної роботи)	50	50 „5”	Студент показав обізнаність у теоретичному матеріалі (90–100% матеріалу) та

				високий рівень практичних умінь
			30 „4”	Володіння 75–90%) матеріалу, уміння застосовувати його на практиці
			20 „3”	Студент має загальне уявлення про проблему (на 50–70% володіє інформацією)
			0 „2”	Не відповідає на жодне запитання

Ми вважаємо, що така ступенева організація підготовки майбутнього викладача вищого навчального закладу здатна створити достатню базу для подальшого всебічного вдосконалення професійної майстерності.

THEME I: The essence of language communication

A. The Teacher-Centred Mode

1. Lecture Plan:

1. Communication theory.
2. Methods and main lines of research in communicative studies.
3. Definition of communication.
4. Typology of communication.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Adler R. B. Understanding Human Communication / Ronald B. Adler, George Rodman. – 4th edition. – Chicago : Holt, Rinehart and Winston Press, 1991. – 471 p.
2. Barthes R. Elements of Semiology / Ronald Barthes. – New York : Columbia University Press, 1980. – 111 p.
3. Bittner J. R. Mass Communication: Annotated instructor's edition / John R. Bittner. – 6th edition. – Boston : Allyn and Bacon, 1996. – 514 p.
4. Cappella J. Theories of Human Communication / Jack Cappella // Communication Theory. – May. – 1991. – V. 1.2. – P. 165–171.
5. Craig R. T. Communication Theory as a Field / Robert T. Craig // Communication Theory. – 1999. – V. 9. – P. 119–161.
6. DeVito J. A. Human Communication: The Basic Course / Joseph A. DeVito. – 6th ed. – New York : Harper Collins College Publishers, 1994. – 328 p.

7. Gibson J. W. Introduction to Human Communication / John W. Gibson, Mark S. Hanna. – Dubuque, Iowa : IA Press, 1992. – 483 p.

8. Jensen K. B. A Handbook of Media and Communicative Research. Qualitative and Quantitative Methodologies / Klaus Bruhn Jensen. – London : Routledge, 2002. – 332 p.

9. Sereno K. K. Foundations of Communication Theory / Kenneth K. Sereno, David C. Mortensen. – New York : Harper & Row, 1970. – 248 p.

3. Glossary:

Buzz Words

communication	transmitting information
interaction	influence
language	communicative act
communicative linguistics	sign
message	symbol
receiver	sender
channel	feedback
participants	self-feedback

4. Fundamentals:

1. Communication theory.

The etymology of the word *communication* (from Latin *communicare*) literally means “to put in common”, “to share”. The term originally meant sharing of tangible things; food, land, goods, and property. Today, it is often applied to knowledge and information processed by living things or computers.

One might say that communication consists of transmitting information. In fact, many scholars of communication take this as a working definition, and use Harold Lasswell’s maxim (“who says what to whom”) as a means of circumscribing the field of

communication. Others stress the importance of clearly characterizing the historical, economic and social context. Thus, communication theory attempts to document types of communication, and to optimize communications for the benefit of all.

Communication may be studied empirically and critically at different levels of interaction. These levels are *intra-personal*, *inter-personal*, *group*, *formal and informal organizations*, and *community / society*.

Empirical study means applying scientific methods to the study of communication; as in the study of behavior change resulting from exposure to a communication campaign. Critical study means applying methods of cultural, literary, or normative criticism to the study of communication.

But whatever way one studies communication one necessarily addresses the notion of communicative linguistics. *Communicative linguistics* – a recently developed branch of linguistics, which studies the processes of interpersonal communication with the emphasis upon the live natural language viewed as the unity of communicative components – physical, psychological, physiological, social, contextual, etc. *Subject of communicative linguistics* – study of language in the real processes of interpersonal communication.

2. Methods and main lines of research in communicative studies.

Methods in Communicative Studies:

- 1) *semiotic analysis* – study of communication on the basis of sign (semiotic) nature of language;
- 2) *pragmatic analysis* – helps to investigate the interconnection of human components of communication

(psychological type of man, human mood, world-view, attitude towards speaker) and language structures;

3) *structural analysis* – studies language as an entire functional system, elements and parts of which are strictly interconnected;

4) *discourse analysis* – studies social context of communication which stands by the oral or written speech; interconnection of language code in speaking and social, psychological, physical, cultural processes.

Main Lines of Research in Communicative Studies:

1) investigation of the universal laws of human communication;

2) investigation of the peculiarities of interpersonal communication depending upon different conditions (social, cultural, etc.);

3) investigation of the structure of language as a complex mental and sociocultural concept in the process of interpersonal communication;

4) investigation of the laws governing the interconnection of intra- and extra-linguistic means of interpersonal communication;

5) investigation of the communicative failures;

6) investigation of the methods of language study in the process of interpersonal communication.

3. Definition of communication.

Communication – is a substantial aspect of social interaction as well as the process of information exchange within the boundaries of human interaction during which information is imparted from a sender to a receiver with the help of a medium.

Interpersonal Communication – communication that occurs between two persons who have a relationship between them. Whenever we speak about the process of interpersonal language

communication we begin operating such terms as: *sender* (*addresser*) – the one who encodes information as a *message* which is sent via a *channel* (e-mail, letter, report, lecture, piece of news, etc.) to a *receiver* (*addressee*) who decodes the information. Interpersonal language communication is always distorted by “noise”, occurs within a context, and involves some opportunity for *feedback* – messages that indicate on how a person is receiving and responding to our messages. Channel of communication can also be called *medium* – 1) *verbal or auditory means*, such as speaking, singing, tone of voice; 2) *non-verbal, physical means*, such as body language, sign language, paralanguage, touch, eye contact, or the use of writing.

Main Functions of Interpersonal Language Communication: contact, informative, stimulating, cognitive, emotive, coordinative, influencing functions and establishing of relationships.

4. Typology of communication.

Communication can be differentiated according to:

- 1) the usage / non-usage of language: verbal, non-verbal;
- 2) forms of realization of language code: oral, written, printed;
- 3) topic of communication: political, scientific, everyday, religious, philosophical, educative, etc.;
- 4) aim of communication: business, entertainment, educative, everyday;
- 5) degree of officiality: official, unofficial;
- 6) degree of control: formal, informal;
- 7) amount of participants: inner communication, interpersonal communication, communication within small communicative groups, public communication, mass communication, intercultural communication;
- 8) social factors: personally or socially oriented;

9) form of communication: closed, opened, mixed communication;

10) liberty of partner choice: initiated communication, forced communication;

11) duration factor: constant, periodical, short-time, long-time communication.

5. Questions for Control on Lecture One:

1. What is the essence of the communication theory?
2. What are the methods and main lines of research in communicative studies?
3. What are the component parts of communication?
4. What are the functions of communication?
5. What types of communication do researchers distinguish?

B. The Practical-Class Mode

1. Questions to Be Discussed:

1. When and where do you need to socialize in English?
2. Who do you speak to? Are they native or non-native English speakers? Who do you find easier to understand?
3. What topics do you talk about? What topics are taboo in your culture?
4. What do you find difficult about socializing in English? What do you enjoy?
5. How do you break the ice?

2. Practical Tasks to Do:

1. Read the text.

The following text is an excerpt from the article “Brave New English?” by Barbara Seidlhofer from University of Vienna. It was published in The European English Messenger, the newsletter of the European Society for the Study of English (ESSE). While

reading, pay attention to the main matters the author considers in this article and try to scan the information as to the reasons for popularity of English and its importance for intercultural, scientific and formal communication.

The English Language and the others

Barbara Seidlhofer

University of Vienna

The status of English is clearly a matter of much current debate, disturbing comfortable traditional assumptions about what it is we teach in its name. We only need to look at the articles making up the section ‘The Boundaries of English’ in *The Messenger* of Autumn 2000 to see most of the contentious issues mentioned that confront the areas of linguistics and literature within ‘English’ Studies at the beginning of the 21st century. Indeed, some of their headings and subheadings read like an agenda for addressing questions and consequences arising from the global spread of English: Mufwene’s ‘the ecology of linguistic contacts’ (p. 12) and ‘extending the franchise’ (p. 14), Alexander’s ‘does nationality matter?’ (p. 17) and ‘who’s in, who’s out?’ (p. 18) and Ickstadt’s ‘globalisation and the national paradigm’ (p. 19). Another issue is, of course, the use of English as an international language, or English as a lingua franca. The two quotations above sum up the main opposing positions regarding this role of the language. On the one hand, the British government sees the use of English as a lingua franca as a national achievement, believing that they should ‘capitalise’ on the ‘advantage’ of ‘native speakers’. On the other hand, there is the view that English as an international language has, by definition, become independent of its origins.

In academia (as opposed to the domains of business and politics) it is the latter view that predominates: the current discourse of English Studies is characterised by notions of

multiculturalism, polymodels and pluricentrism (cf. Bergonzi 1990, Bhatia 1997, Kachru 1992, Smith & Forman 1997), and ‘English’ has taken on new meanings when talking about literatures in ‘English’ and ‘World Englishes’. Indeed, the leaflet announcing the first ESSE conference in 1991 stated that “The European Society for the study of English has been founded to encourage European understandings of English languages, literatures and cultures”. (qu. in McArthur 1998: 67).

On the whole, ‘English’ has indeed become ‘Englishes’ (at least to a certain extent) in many literature and linguistics courses since the arrival of postcolonial literatures and World Englishes on the curriculum, but ‘English’ is still a rather fixed entity in the singular when it comes to teaching and using the language as such. The changed status of the language is thus something that Anglicists are aware of, but are not expected to reflect in their own language use. The language ‘English’ is still largely considered the main knowledge base and reference point, and indeed it is often the only unifying element in departments inhabited by scholars who research and teach – if I take my own department as an example – in such diverse areas as American road movies, the Irish country house, travesties of Shakespeare’s plays, cognitive semantics, ‘selfish memes’, macaronic texts, and content-based language teaching. What these have in common is that they deal with English as it is used by its native speakers, usually either in the UK or in the US. And it is this which also provides the yardstick against which students’ work is judged, in essays about topics in linguistics, literature, cultural studies as well as in their language proficiency examinations.

Discussions of the fundamental issues arising from the global spread and use of English have, at long last, found their way into European university courses, and I have witnessed many a lively seminar debate about cultural, ecological, socio-political and

psychological questions arising from 'English as a global language'.

In my own department, there are courses on World Englishes familiarising students with research into 'indigenized varieties'. Students read about 'the future of English' and learn that those who speak English alongside other languages outnumber first-language speakers and so 'will determine its world future' (Graddol 1997:10). In our applied linguistics courses, many students get interested in 'the cultural politics of English as an international language' (Pennycook 1994) and 'linguistic imperialism' (Phillipson 1992), discuss proposals for 'resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching' (Canagarajah 1999) and are encouraged to question native speakers' 'ownership of English' (Widdowson 1994) and to recognise the strengths of 'the non-native teacher' (Medgyes 1994). But then, these very same students go from their applied linguistics course to a room next door for their English language class, where they are taught, and are usually eager to learn, English idiomatic expressions and proverbs originating in the UK and the US as well as American English and English English intonation patterns, and th-sounds; and they consult the *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*, which, the advertisement claims, will enable them to 'get into the Head of the Native Speaker'.

What constitutes a valid target in most classroom English language teaching is still determined with virtually exclusive reference to native-speaker norms.

2. Find these words and word combinations in the text. Suggest proper translation of them into Ukrainian. Use them in the sentences of your own. Memorize them.

Global lingua franca; native speakers; headings and subheadings; consequences; extend the franchise; sum up the main

opposing positions; on the other hand; the latter / former view predominates; multiculturalism; to be aware of; reference point; content-based language teaching; language proficiency examinations; fundamental issues; recognize the strengths of non-native teacher; idiomatic expressions; will enable them to ...; constitute a valid target; reference to native-speaker norms; importance of intercultural communication.

3. Prepare a short summary of the text.

4. Read the information about learning English.

People who speak English fall into three groups: those who have learnt it as their native language; those who have learnt it as their second language in a society that is mainly bilingual and those who are forced to use it for a practical purpose – administrative, professional or educational. One person in seven of the world's population belongs to one of these three groups.

In group of 3-4 discuss what group of people you belong to.

5. To have a good command of English, it is necessary to learn and improve it constantly. In groups of three, discuss "What are your ways of learning English?"

- What are your strategies of learning grammar (learning grammar rules, doing exercises, practicing grammar phenomena in oral speech)?

- What are your strategies of learning vocabulary (differentiate the class of words, explain the meaning or the definition of words, etc.)?

- Which of the language activities do you find the most useful (practicing speaking in groups, listening to the teacher, listening to a cassette, reading texts (newspapers) literature, doing exercises)?

6. *Read the excerpt from a newspaper article. Write down possible arguments for and against the role of English as the Latin of modern world. Discuss your arguments in the group.*

Tedd Wragg, Professor of Education at Exeter University said: “The Internet has hammered the final nail in the coffin of language teaching. It has made English the Latin of the modern world. This generation realizes that English is increasingly the world language”.

English as the World Language of Research and Education

Read the newspaper article and answer the questions that follow. While reading, try to insert the omitted words that are above the text. Sentence numbers have been added here for ease of reference.

interpreted	customize	ambiguities
claimed	expertise	prerogative
varieties	dominant	converse

Englishes are the International Language

¹ “English language _____ is becoming a priority academic/professional requirement whether international higher education graduates choose to return to the home countries or whether they choose to stay in the United States”, said Joan Morley.

² English is today the _____ language in science and technology, medicine and health care fields, commerce, business and industry, and much more. ³ It should come as no shock to find that three-quarters of the world’s information stored in computer banks is in English”.

⁴ According to a recent *Wall Street Journal* article, a billion persons in the world are able to speak English, with more speaking it as a foreign language than as their mother tongue. ⁵ But the language that non-native speakers actually speak can be thought of as many different Englishes. ⁶ Some speak only about computers,

or oil, or commodities trading or swine; they _____ English into forms useful for specific purposes, and those who speak these forms are usually unable to _____ comfortably about matters outside their field of interest. ⁷ Phrases like “get the hang of it”, “to go along with”, and “getting at”, for example, mystify many non-native speakers.

⁸ _____ in English can even be deadly. ⁹ An air traffic controller in Madagascar radioed, “Clipper 1736 report clear of runway”. ¹⁰ The pilot _____ that as clearance for takeoff, rather than an order to report that he had cleared the runway, collided with an incoming airliner, and 600 people died. ¹¹ Such linguistic mistakes have _____ at least 3,000 lives, an expert told the *Journal*.

¹² Alan Firth, a British scholar who specializes in foreign _____ of spoken English, told the *Journal*: “What happens to this language is no longer our _____. ¹³ English is no longer our possession. ¹⁴ It’s not a monolith. ¹⁵ It’s in an incredible state of flux”.

1. Can you explain the grammar of the title (“Englishes” in the plural and “language” in the singular)?

2. Do you agree that there are different Englishes? Is there a Ukrainian English? If so, what are its features?

3. Do you think the role of the English language is increasing in Ukraine? Provide some examples of its functioning in different spheres of life in your country.

4. Is English a leading language in your field of study? How often do you use English for information search as compared with Ukrainian?

5. Are you mystified by the phrases “get the hang of it”, “to go along with”, and “getting at”? Can you explain their meaning?

6. Can you retell in your own the tragic linguistic mistake described in the text?

C. The Individual Mode

1. Information to Be Studied:

The reading process

The following texts are for reading and classroom discussion and writing assignments. Before that you are given some reading and writing instructions to prepare you for successful completion of the tasks.

You should understand *reading* as not merely a process of extracting meaning from the text; rather, it is a participation, a habitation within a writer's woven world, one to which you respond according to your own experiences, values, depth of insight, and time period. Reading is thus an interactive process, as you attend first to the surface features of a text (e.g. vocabulary, topic, frame of reference), then move on to your own discerning of foundational and nested ideas and their levels of complexity, and on to how the writer has woven them to make meaning. Reading is also both an analytical and synthetic process; that is, while you are separating the text into component parts or classifying its features, you are also attempting to pull things together into some coherent whole.

There are some useful strategies that effective readers use to make connections, identify patterns, sort out the levels of ideas and their effects, and, finally, make meaning. First of all, one reading is not enough. Use your initial encounter with the text to gain a general acquaintance with the subject matter and stance of the author in the text. Next, do a second reading, in which you employ the five important strategies, identified below, that good readers use to encounter ideas and make sense of them. Finally, respond in

writing with engagement and discernment, using the activities of observation, evaluation, and responding and applying to help explore the author's world, and then to discover and articulate your own ideas and stance.

Five Strategies for Discerning Readers:

1. Locate the main argument or topic – usually introduced in the title and opening two or three paragraphs of the text.
2. Follow this argument through the subsequent paragraphs and sections by noticing the examples, illustrations that the writer binds or weaves around this argument-listing them and evaluating them.
3. Determine what is new (ideas which you are encountering for the first time or which are presented in a fresh or startling way) or given (ideas with which you are familiar or count as conventional wisdom) in the text and how they affect your experience as a critical thinker.
4. Characterize this argument at critical junctures in your reading by highlighting significant sentences, words, or phrases.
5. Evaluate the overall credibility and force of the author's ideas and experience. In what position are you placed by the text?

Critical Writing Strategies for

Exploring and Understanding Your Own Ideas

Close, active reading alone will not necessarily result in a knowledgeable and authoritative ability to demonstrate what you have discovered to others. Reading and writing are independent and mutually beneficial activities that together provide your best opportunity for understanding and evaluating the texts you read. Writing – along with public, classroom discussion – allows you to articulate and evaluate your discoveries, all the while measuring them against the readings others have given of the same material. In addition, it will allow you to become more aware of the

strategies the successful authors use to create meaning and achieve effects they have on their readers.

At the end of each text you will find three sets of questions, each set designed to provoke a particular kind of reflection upon the perspectives of the text and writing assignments that will assist you in synthesizing the varied ideas and contexts of the readings you've been assigned and in drawing conclusions about the cogency, impact, and relevance of these ideas for our times. These tasks thus allow you to explore, expand, and explain to yourself (as well as debate with your groupmates) the meanings and implications suggested by the texts you've been asked to read.

The three modes or kinds of writing task you can employ are: observing, evaluating, and responding and applying. Writers use observative questions to probe a text, to clarify its meaning and intention, and to determine its main thesis. An evaluative questions are employed by the writers to argue in behalf of or against a particular point of view that is promoted or prompted by the text. Responsive and application questions allow the writer to respond directly to the readings in a personal way, deliberately examining his or her own feelings and associations, foregrounding them in the text, and applying the selection out of individual conviction and belief. Note that these categories for questions provide the basis for sound reading and interpretation of the text: observative questions ask for close reading, analysis, synthesis; evaluative questions ask for judgments, inferences, implications; responsive questions ask for personal thoughts and application of your discoveries – all these variations can be easily used in writing responsive essays to the suggested texts in case you are not provided with a specific writing assignment.

2. Practical Tasks to Do:

1. Read and be ready to discuss the texts.

Text 1: Study Says Society Fails 19 Million Youths

Peter Applebome

At a time when there is widespread concern about the well-being of young children and the social problems of teenagers, some 19 million young adolescents in between are increasingly falling between the cracks of society, according to a report by the Carnegie Corporation that was made public yesterday.

The report, entitled "Great Transitions: Preparing Adolescents for a New Century", said that young adolescents are facing critical decisions about their health, education and safety at ever younger ages and that society is failing to help them avoid dangers ranging from AIDS to suicide and from teen-age pregnancy to dropping out of school.

"What we tried to do was marshal statistics, push this out front and try to get people to really focus on the problems of early adolescence", said Ruby Takanishi, executive director of the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, which prepared the report over the last 10 years. "Everything in it argues that early adolescence, the years from 10 to 14, are much more risky business than they used to be".

The report says that one-third of 13-year-olds acknowledge that they have used illicit drugs, that educational achievement levels of eighth graders have remained stagnant while the educational needs of the workplace have increased, that the homicide rate for those 10 to 14 years of age more than doubled from 1985 to 1992 and that self-destructive violence, particularly the suicide rate, more than doubled from 1980 to 1992.

The report found that one of five adolescents are growing up in poverty and that one in two will live with only one parent at home at some time in their lives.

It calls for changes in schools, community services and family involvement to better meet the needs of young adolescents.

But David A. Hamburg, president of the Carnegie Corporation, said the main purpose of the report was to focus attention on what he said was the least studied and least understood phase of human development.

“This is the first comprehensive study of this age group”, he said. “It has been the neglected phase, low on research priorities, low on educational priorities, low on service priorities. If I had to sum up what it’s about, it would be in two words: neglected opportunities.

In education, the report called for smaller, more personal middle schools, even if that only meant breaking up large impersonal school buildings into smaller, more manageable units. It cited the successes of educational programs that use interdisciplinary approaches to study broad areas and integrate various disciplines rather than narrowly focused ones.

The report called for a much stronger life sciences program that could meet both the intellectual and the personal health needs of young adolescents. It called the health and life science curriculum “the weakest link in middle grade school reform”, and urged the development of “one-stop” centers for counseling or health information at or near schools.

Smoking among eighth graders, defined as those who had smoked a cigarette within 30 days of the time they were polled, rose by 30 percent from 1991 to 1994, to 18.6 percent. Marijuana use more than doubled, to 13 percent. The firearms homicide rate more than doubled from 1985 to 1992, to 1.9 per 100,000 from eight-tenths of 1 percent. For black males, the rate increased to 8.4 per 100,000 from 3 in the same period.

Dr. Hamburg said it was clear that youngsters in inner areas and poverty areas are far more vulnerable than those in more affluent areas. The report noted that by the year 2000, more than

one-third of all young adolescents will be members of racial or ethnic minorities.

But he said the concerns and risks were common to all youths, particularly at a time of rising economic displacement, when parents are increasingly likely to work outside the home and only half of the nation's children can expect to grow up in an intact two-parent household.

Dr. Hamburg said that most of the report's recommendations could be put into effect through the redeployment of existing resources rather than the addition of new ones, and that rigid analysis of which programs work would be necessary to justify additional expenditures in the current environment.

"We didn't put this in terms of Utopian or hypothetical ideals", he said. "Generally, we can cite 5 or 10 or 20 examples of things that work, but it's on a scale that's much smaller than the nation requires".

Questions for Writing and Discussion

Observing

1. What are the most critical conclusions of the Carnegie Study?

2. Why did Carnegie study the young?

Evaluating

1. What forces and events in our history do you think might have led to those changes? Which are cited in the article?

2. Why do you think adolescents have been neglected when it comes to search studies?

3. What solutions does Dr. Hamburg suggest and do you find them realistic?

Responding and Applying

1. Where would you put local, state, or national resources to solve the problems cited?

Text 2: What is the New History

Peter Burke

The phrase “the new history” is best known in France. What is *nouvelle histoire*? A positive definition is not easy; the movement is united only in what it opposes, and the pages which follow will demonstrate the variety of the new approaches. It is therefore difficult to offer more than a vague description, characterizing the new history as total history or structural history.

The new history is history written in deliberate reaction against the traditional “paradigm”. We might also call this paradigm the common-sense view of history, not to praise it but to make the point that it has often – too often – been assumed to be the way of doing history, rather than being perceived as one among various possible approaches to the past. For the sake of simplicity and clarity, the contrast between old and new history might be summed up in seven points.

1. According to the traditional paradigm, history is essentially concerned with politics. In the confident Victorian phrase of Sir John Seeley “History is past politics: politics is present history”. Politics was essentially concerned with state; in other words it was national and international rather than local. However, it did include the history of the Church as an institution and also what the military theorist Karl von Clausewitz defined as “the continuation of policies by other means”, that is, war. Although other kinds of history – the history of art, for example, or the history of science – were not altogether excluded by the traditional paradigm, they were marginalized in the sense of being considered peripheral to the interests of “real” historians. The new history, on the other hand, has come to be considered with virtually every human activity. “Everything has a history”, as the scientist J. B. Haldane once wrote; that is, everything has a past which can in principle be reconstructed and related to the rest of the past. Hence the slogan

“total history” appears. The first half of the century witnessed the rise of the history of ideas. In the last thirty years we have seen a number of remarkable histories of topics which had not previously been thought to possess a history, for example, childhood, death, madness, gestures, femininity, reading and even silence. What have previously been considered as unchanging is now viewed as a “cultural construction”, subject to variation over time as well as in space. The cultural relativism implicit here deserves to be emphasized. The philosophical foundation of the new history is the idea that reality is socially or culturally constituted. The sharing of this idea, or assumption, by many social historians and anthropologists helps explain the recent convergence between these two disciplines, referred to more than once in this chapter. This relativism also undermines the traditional distinction between what is central in history and what is peripheral.

2. In the second place, traditional historians think of history as essentially a narrative of events, while the new history is more concerned with the analysis of structures. One of the most famous works of history of our times, Fernand Braudel’s *Mediterranean*, dismisses the history of events as no more than a foam on the waves of the sea of history. According to Braudel, economic and social changes over the long term and geo-historical changes over the very long term are what really matter. Although there has recently been something of a reaction against this view and events are no longer dismissed as easily as they used to be, the history of structures of various kinds continues to be taken very seriously.

3. In the third place, traditional history offers a view from above, in the sense that it has always concentrated on great deeds of great men, statesmen, generals, or occasionally churchmen. The rest of humanity was allocated a minor role in the drama of history. The existence of this rule is revealed by reactions to its transgression. When the great Russian writer Alexander Pushkin

was working on an account of a peasant revolt and its leader Pugachev, Tsar Nicholas's comment was that "such a man has no history". On the other hand, a number of the new historians are concerned with "the history from below", in other words with the views of ordinary people and with their experience of social change. The history of popular culture has received a great deal of attention. Historians of the Church are beginning to examine its history from below as well as from above. Intellectual historians too have shifted their attention away from great books, or great ideas – their equivalent of great men – to the history of collective mentalities or to the history of discourses or languages, the language of scholasticism, for example, or the language of the common law.

4. In the fourth place, according to the traditional paradigm, history should be based on the documents. One of Ranke's greatest achievements was his exposure of the limitations of narrative sources – let us call them chronicles – and his stress on the need to base written history on official records, emanating from governments and preserved in archives. The price of this achievement was the neglect of other kinds of evidence. The period before the invention of writing was dismissed as "prehistory". However, the "history from below" movement in its turn exposed the limitations of this kind of document. Official records generally express the official point of view. To reconstruct the attitudes of heretics and rebels, such records need to be supplemented by other kinds of source. In any case, if historians are concerned with a greater variety of human activities than their predecessors, they must examine a greater variety of evidence. Some of this evidence is visual, some of it oral. There is also statistical evidence: trade figures, voting figures, and so on. The heyday of quantitative history was probably 1950s and 1960s, when some enthusiasts claimed that only quantitative methods are reliable. There has been

a reaction against such claims, and to some extent to the methods as well, but interest in more modest quantitative history continues to grow. In Britain, for example, an Association of History and Computing was founded in 1987.

5. According to the traditional paradigm, memorably articulated by the philosopher-historian R. G. Collingwood, “When an historian asks ‘Why did Brutus stab Caesar?’ he means ‘What did Brutus think, which made him to stab Caesar?’” This model of historical explanation has been criticized by more recent historians on number of grounds, principally because it fails to take account of variety of historians’ questions often concerned with collective movements as well as individual actions, with trends as well as events.

According to traditional paradigm, History is objective. The historian’s task is to give readers the facts, or as Ranke put it in much-quoted phrase, to tell “how it actually happened”. His modest disclaimer of philosophical intentions was interpreted by prosperity as a proud manifesto for history without bias. In a famous letter to his international team of contributors to the *Cambridge Modern History*, published from 1902 onwards, its editor, Lord Acton, urged them that “our Waterloo must be one that satisfies French and English, Dutch and Germans alike” and that readers should be unable to tell where one contributor laid down his pen and another took it up. Today, this ideal is generally considered to be unrealistic. However hard we struggle to avoid the prejudices associated with color, creed, class, or gender, we cannot avoid looking at the past from particular point of view. Cultural relativism obviously applies as much to historical writing itself as to its so-called objects. Our minds do not reflect reality directly. We perceive the world only through a network of conventions, schemata and stereotypes, a network which varies from one culture to another. In this situation, our understanding of conflicts is surely

enhanced by a presentation of opposite viewpoints, rather than by attempt, like Acton's, to articulate consensus. We have moved from the ideal of the Voice of History to that of heteroglossia, defined as "varied and opposing voices".

The whole concern with the range of human activity encourages historians to be interdisciplinary in the sense of learning from and collaborating with social anthropologists, economists, literary critics, psychologists, and so on. Historians of art, literature and science, who used to pursue their interests more or less in isolation from the main body of historians, are now making more regular contact with them. The history-from-below movement also reflects a new determination to take ordinary people's point of view of their own past more seriously than professional historians used to do.

Questions for Writing and Discussion

Observing

1. Burke starts off trying to define the old approach to doing history – the traditional paradigm. From your own experience in history lessons and from what Burke says, what do you think he means by the old history?

2. Write a one-line summary for each of the six points. Which do you think is / are most important?

3. Burke talks of the old history in terms of marginalization. What does he mean? What is "total history"?

Evaluating

1. What do you think the significance is of the change Burke describes, from the "view from above" to including the rest of humanity? What political implications, as far as the distribution of power is concerned, do you see?

2. Describe some of the challenges the new history might face. What happens when history is no longer assumed to be objective?

Responding and Applying

1. Describe your own history education in the terms Burke presents.
2. Examine a history text you've used or found. What model of history does it represent?

Text 3: The Emerging Third Culture*John Brockman*

The third culture consists of those scientists and other thinkers in the empirical world who, through their work and expository writing, are taking the place of the traditional intellectual in rendering visible the deeper meanings of our lives, redefining who and what we are.

In the past few years, the playing field of American intellectual life was shifted, and the traditional intellectual has become increasingly marginalized. A 1950s education in Freud, Marx, and modernism is not a sufficient qualification for a thinking person in the 1990s. Indeed, the traditional American intellectuals are, in a sense, increasingly reactionary, and quite often proudly (and perversely) ignorant of many of the truly significant intellectual accomplishments of our time. Their culture, which dismisses science, is often nonempirical. It uses its own jargon and washes its own laundry. It is chiefly characterized by comment on comments, the swelling spiral of commentary eventually reaching the point where the real world gets lost.

In 1959 C. P. Snow published a book titled *The Two Cultures*. On the one hand, there were the literary intellectuals; on the other, the scientists. He noted with incredulity that during the 1930s the literary intellectuals, while no one was looking, took to referring to themselves as “the intellectuals”, as though there were no others. This new definition by the “men of letters” excluded scientists such as the astronomer Edwin Hubble, the mathematician John von

Neumann, and the physicists Albert Einstein, Niels Bohr, and Werner Heisenberg.

How did the literary intellectuals get away with it? First, people in the sciences did not make an effective case for the implications of their work. Second, while many eminent scientists, notably Arthur Eddington and James Jeans, also wrote for a general audience, their works were ignored by the self-proclaimed intellectuals, and the value and importance of the idea presented remained invisible as an intellectual activity, because science was not a subject for the reigning journals and magazines.

In a second edition of *The Two Cultures*, published in 1963, Snow added a new essay, “The Two Cultures: A Second Look”, in which he optimistically suggested that a new culture, a third culture, would emerge and close the communication gap between the literary intellectuals and the scientists. In Snow’s third culture, the literary intellectuals would be on speaking terms with the scientists. Although I borrow Snow’s term, it doesn’t describe the third culture he predicted. Literary intellectuals are not communicating with scientists. Scientists are communicating directly with general public. Traditional intellectual media played a vertical game: journalists wrote up and professors wrote down. Today, the third culture thinkers tend to avoid the middleman and endeavor to express their deepest thoughts in a manner accessible to the intelligent reading public.

The recent publishing successes of serious science books have surprised only the old-style intellectuals. Their view is that these books are anomalies – that they are bought but are not read. I disagree. The emergence of this third culture activity is evidence that many people have a great intellectual hunger for new and important ideas and are willing to make effort to educate themselves.

The wide appeal of the third-culture thinkers is not due solely to their writing ability; what traditionally has been called “science” has today become “public culture”. Stewart Brand writes that “Science is the only news. When you scan through newspaper or magazine, all the human interest stuff is the same old he-said-she-said, the politics and the economics the same sorry cyclic dramas, the fashions a pathetic illusion of newness, and even the technology is predictable if you know the science. Human nature doesn’t change much; science does, and the change accrues, altering the world irreversibly”. We now live in a world in which the rate of change is the biggest change. Science has thus become a big story.

Scientific topics receiving prominent play in newspapers and magazines over the past several years include molecular biology, artificial intelligence, artificial life, chaos theory, massive parallelism, neural nets, the inflationary universe, fractals, complex adaptive systems, superstrings, biodiversity, nanotechnology, the human genome, expert systems, punctuated equilibrium, cellular automata, fuzzy logic, space biospheres, virtual reality, cyberspace. Among others, there is no canon or accredited list of acceptable ideas. The strength of third culture is precisely that it can tolerate disagreements about which ideas are to be taken seriously. Unlike previous intellectual pursuits, the achievements of third culture are not the marginal disputes of a quarrelsome mandarin class: they will affect the lives of everybody on the planet.

The role of the intellectual includes communicating. Intellectuals are not just people who know things but who shape the thoughts of their generation. An intellectual is a synthesizer, a publicist, a communicator. In his 1987 book *The Last Intellectuals*, the cultural historian Russell Jacoby bemoaned the passing of a generation of public thinkers and their replacement by bloodless

academicians. He was right, but also wrong. The third culture thinkers are the new public intellectuals.

America now is the intellectual seedbed for Europe and Asia. This trend started with the prewar emigration of Albert Einstein and other European scientists and was further fueled by the post-Sputnic boom in scientific education in our universities. The emergence of the third culture introduces new modes of intellectual discourse and reaffirms the preeminence of America in the realm of important ideas. Throughout the history, intellectual life has been marked by the fact that only a small number of people have done the serious thinking for everybody else. What we are witnessing now is passing of the torch from one group of thinkers, the traditional literary intellectuals, to a new group, the intellectuals of the emerging third culture.

Questions for Writing and Discussion

Observing

1. If literary intellectuals are culture one and scientists are culture two, what constitutes the third culture as C. P. Snow defined it in 1963? The third culture as Brockman defines it today?
2. In what sense, according to Brockman, has what traditionally has been called "science" become "public culture"?

Evaluating

1. Though science has become "public culture", according to Brockman it has done so largely in spite of the literary intellectuals, who are still "not speaking to scientists". Do you agree that science remains isolated from other aspects of intellectual culture?
2. Implicit in Brockman's discussion are a number of fundamental issues with regard not only to scientific ideas but to all the great ideas: Where do they come from? Who initiates them? Who transmits them? Who are their audiences? How do we

identify them? And, of course, why should we study them, or perhaps better, do we have any responsibility to seek to understand them? Do you think Brockman illuminates these issues?

Responding and Applying

1. From your own experience, how would you describe the attitudes of your teachers of the traditional humanities toward science? Interested, fascinated, ignorant?

2. How would you describe your own attitude toward science? To what extent do you think your attitude was shaped by teachers, parents, media you are exposed to?

3. Consider the list Brockman provides of “scientific topics receiving prominent play in newspapers and magazines over the past several years”. Do any of these topics especially interest you? If so, would you describe the motivation behind your interest as intellectual curiosity or something more practical?

Text 4: The Global Village

Andrew Todhunter

To gain a sense of how much life has changed over the last several hundred years, contrast that kind of life immersed in information to the role of a serf who lived 500 years ago, thinking mainly about where his next meal was from. Our serf didn’t live entirely in uncertainty and fear, however, for in religious and political terms, things were pretty fixed, stable, sometimes routine. During the interval of over a thousand years that we call the Middle Ages, the Christian cosmos was so thoroughly charted that there seemed to be little room for uncertainty about his role and proper conduct in societal shown in our essay on the origins of democracy in Chapter Seven, obedience and conformity were the very foundations of the lives of the masses. For most of the time from the Middle Ages to the nineteenth century, humans in the Western world lived within one belief system, the Christian cosmos. That belief was controlled by a lord or bishop, and it

existed under the economic of a manor or the religious control of a priest or minister. Thus, one lived within one's religion or politics as if in a fishbowl; just as the fish is the last to see the water, the serf was the last to think carefully about the rules of the human game. The Bible was interpreted as saying that priests and kings inherited power from God. Such a cosmology was largely unquestioned and therefore unseen. It was assumed that there was a Truth, one Truth, and it was Supreme.

At the same time in artistic and intellectual circles in the fourteenth century, at the beginning of the Renaissance, the Greek optimism towards the perfectibility of the individual was renewed and continued through the seventeenth century Enlightenment, and into the eighteenth century with its emphasis on human reason, in particular the scientific method. Confidence in the supposedly unlimited human capacities to solve problems and the inevitability of progress grew steadily. This confidence continued into the late eighteenth century, when the Industrial Revolution began in England, and into the nineteenth century, with the discovery of the biological principles of evolution. (Some would say it continues today – computer magnate Bill Gates looks bright. In his book *The Road Ahead*, he shares his belief that a computer-networked world will make people happier, richer, healthier, and smarter.)

With modern communications making nearly instant worldwide contact readily available, creating what Marshall McLuhan called a “global village”, the belief in a fixed and unquestioned Truth in an ordered and fully discoverable cosmos becomes questionable, tentative, and highly unstable. In little towns all over America, where a conservative politics and ethos used to set the controlling tone of life, convenience stores are open 24 hours a day, while CNN and MTV play on cable. Sixteen-year-olds get their first job at McDonalds and soon save enough for their first car. The Playboy channel is available for a few extra dollars a

month. Thus, the new technologies make war with the older values of family, church, and state. The more information one gets, the more likely one will reflect on and often question what was blindly accepted before. The Internet, television, the cell phone, the fax, and email lead us to ask: How can my truth, my lifestyle, my beliefs be so right if there are so many others who think so differently, but with equal passion?

Some say that all this saturation of information has given our culture an “appetite for ambiguity” and that we don’t seem to know what is right or wrong. Ask people what they think of many of the critical issues of the day: welfare, abortion, illegitimate birth, gun control, and capital punishment. Deep in the American psyche there are conflicts about most of these troubling issues – between mercy and justice, between tradition and a hard-nosed, no-nonsense wish to demand change. Notice the frequency of white-collar crime and the increasing violence among the young. Where has our unambiguous sense of right gone?

These cultural changes, so many of which are brought on by technology, especially the demise of the single belief system, have been charted by many scholars, especially by historians, anthropologists, and linguists. By studying many cultures and language systems, many have concluded that what we once thought of as fixed truths are really “social constructions”. (We should emphasize the word *many* here, since there is a backlash among anthropologists against postmodernism.) A social construction is a belief created out of the particular circumstances of a particular culture. Theorists like Thomas Kuhn, Richard Rorty, and Mikhail Bakhtin think of knowing as a process mediated by language and, therefore, believe knowledge is the product of a social consensus. Two fields in particular, semiotics in linguistics and deconstruction in literary criticism, accelerated changes even more. French

scholars like Jacques Derrida and Michel Foucault argued that because we could not depend on a certain, fixed relationship between the word (signifier) and its referent (the signified), the conceptual picture we draw of the world with our minds.

Assignments:

- 1. Write a short summary of the text.*
- 2. Write a conference proposal on one of the major problems the author mentioned in his article:*
 1. Increasing violence among the young.
 2. Humanistic ideas in artistic and intellectual circles in the 14th century.
 3. Will computer networked world make people happier, richer, healthier or smarter?

THEME II: Science communication: the evolution of forms, principles of organization

A. The Teacher-Centred Mode

1. Lecture Plan:

1. Structure and types of science communication.
2. History of science communication.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Решетникова Е. В. Научные коммуникации: эволюция форм, принципов организации [Электронный ресурс] / Е. В. Решетникова. — URL : <https://sibsubtis.ru/upload/publications/9b3/uxofvwfphpyfwz%20nlc.ieeuzqkvzohdcxsxzhcvdi.pdf>.
2. Bickerton D. Roots of Language / Derek Bickerton. — Ann Arbor : Karoma Publishers, Inc., 1981. — 351 p.
3. Burns T. W. Science Communication: A Contemporary Definition / T. W. Burns, D. J. O'Connor, S. M. Stockmayer // Public Understanding of Science. — 2003. — April. — P. 183–202.
4. Christensen L. L. The Hands-On Guide for Science Communicators: A Step-by-Step Approach to Public Outreach / Lars Lindberg Christensen. — Munich : Springer, 2008. — 270 p.
5. Clyne M. Dynamics of Language Contact / Michel Clyne. — Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2003. — 287 p.
6. Doumont J. English Communication for Scientists / Jean Doumont. — Cambridge, MA : NPG Education, 2010. — 462 p.

7. Halliday M. A. K. The Users and the Uses of Language / Michael Alexander Kirkwood Halliday, Alistair McIntosh, Peter Stevens / Readings in the Sociology of Language. – The Hague, Paris : Mouton, 1970. – 402 p.

8. Nisbet M. C. What's Next For Science Communication? Promising Directions and Lingering Distractions / Matthew C. Nisbet, Dietram A. Scheufele // American Journal of Botany. – 2009. – No. 10. – P. 1767–1778.

9. Thomas J. E. Communicating Science Effectively: A Practical Handbook for Integrating Visual Elements / J. E. Thomas, T. A. Saxby, W. Dennison, T. Carruthers, E. G. Abal, A. Jones. – London : IWA Publishing. – 159 p.

3. Glossary:

Buzz Words

scientific societies	specialized	magazines
	network	
information distance	communication network	
“The Republic of Learning”	“The Invisible College”	
“The Electronic Invisible	scientific dispute	
College”		
knowledge dissemination	scientific information	
scientific correspondence	information exchange	
collaboration	electronic communication	

4. Fundamentals:

1. Structure and types of science communication.

Science communication is a specially ordered system of social interactions aimed at finding, accumulation and dissemination of

scientific knowledge about reality, carried out via various channels, means, forms and institutions of communication.

The structure of scientific communication includes the following components: direct connections; connections mediated by technical means of information duplicating; mixed connections.

Depending on the type of connections scientific communication can be in the form of official and unofficial contacts, targeted and poorly targeted, formal and non-formal, interpersonal and impersonal, direct and indirect.

2. History of science communication.

Since the XVII century in Europe start forming the practices of scientific communication, based on personal relationships, meetings, and on letters exchange. Expanding personal communication institutionalized in the “scientific societies” of the XIX century.

The next stage of development of the system of scientific communication is the development of the network of specialized magazines, which began in the late XIX century.

The growth of scientific information quantum, ultrafast transmission of information around the world through the Internet, led to shortening information distances, to the formation of interactive networks of scientific communication.

There existed three types of communication networks, functioning in three historical forms of scientific communication: “The Republic of Learning” (XVII century), “The Invisible College” (XIX – XX centuries), “The Electronic Invisible College” (the end of XX – the beginning of XXI centuries).

“The Republic of Learning” is the union of European intellectuals of New time, based on the principles of freedom, humanity and rational criticism. The role of scientific

communication in “The Republic of Learning” was the coordination of scientific information and its broadcast via correspondence and periodicals, its adoption in educational process.

“The Invisible College – the second historical form of scientific communication, a self-organizing communicative formation of researchers working on promising new issues. The formation of “The Invisible College” includes: the normal phase, the communication network, a cohesive group and a formed scientific specialty. Forms of interaction for each of the phases involve communication different in quantity and quality: starting from the communication for establishing contacts through collaboration to co-authorship, and, finally, to the academic communication.

Mediated by electronic means of communication, “The Invisible College” transforms into “The Electronic Invisible College”, where the basic principles of “The Invisible College” are complemented by effects of the web culture. The work of scientists and scientific organizations is transferred to the Internet.

5. Questions for Control on Lecture Two:

1. What is the difference between an everyday and a science communication?
2. In what spheres of life does a science communication happen?
3. What types of a science communication do researchers distinguish?
4. What does an effective science communication depend on?
5. What are the main periods in the development of a science communication?

B. The Individual Mode

1. Information to Be Studied:

1. The necessity to speak about science.
2. Communication skills a professional scientist needs.
3. Efficient oral communication.
4. Types of scientific presentations.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Арредондо Л. Искусство деловой презентации / Лэни Арредондо. – Челябинск : Урал LTD, 1998. – 513 с.

2. Леонтьев А. А. Психологические особенности деятельности лектора / А. А. Леонтьев. – М. : Знание, 1981. – 80 с. – (Серия „Методика лекторского мастерства и ораторского искусства”).

3. Маркова Т. И. Риторика и этика деловой презентации: учеб. пособие / Т. И. Маркова, В. А. Шенберг, Санкт-Петербургский гос. инженерно-экономический ун-т. – СПб. : СПбГИЭУ, 2001. – 100 с.

4. Ребрик С. Б. Презентация: Подготовка и проведение: 10 уроков: Руководство для корпоративного и индивидуального обучения & Дайджест из книг С. Ребрика / С. Б. Ребрик. – М. : ЭКСМО, 2005 – 200 с. : ил. – (Бизнес. Политика).

5. Сопер П.Л. Основы искусства речи / П. Л. Сопер. – 2 испр. изд. – М.: Прогресс; Прогресс-Академия, 1992. – 416 с.

Томан І. Мистецтво говорити / Іржі Томан. – К. : Політвидав України, 1986. – 223 с.

6. Albuquerque U. P. Speaking in Public About Science: A Quick Guide for the Preparation of Good Lectures, Seminars, and Scientific Presentations / Ulysses Paulino Albuquerque. – Switzerland : Springer, 2015. – 68 p.

7. Brieger N. Teaching Business English Handbook / Nick Brieger. – York : York Associates, 1997. – 192 p.

8. Byrns J. H. Speak for yourself: An Introduction to Public Speaking / James Henderson Byrns. – 3-d edition. – New York : McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1994. – 329 p.

9. Donald S. G. Study Skills for Language Students: A Practical Guide / Syd G. Donald, Pauline E. Kneale. – London : Arnold, a member of the Hodder Headline Group, 2001. – 286 p.

10. Ellis M. Giving presentations / Mark Ellis, Nina O'Driscoll. – Burnt Mill : England and Associated Companies throughout the world, 1992. – 96 p.

11. Emden J. van Presentation Skills for Students / Joan van Emden, Lucinda Becker. – Houndmill s; New York : Palgrave Macmillan, 2004. – 142 p.

3. Practical Tasks to Do:

1. Answer the questions below in full honesty, and then, assess your current state as a communicator in science. The questions apply to both expository practices and everyday communication in relationships with friends, colleagues, pupils, supervisees, supervisors, and so on. You might have some difficulty answering some questions, particularly the ones addressing experiences you have not yet undergone. In such cases, speculate on your possible behavior in the given situation.

		Yes	Sometimes	No
1.	Do you usually expound your ideas in a timely manner, or do you always speak your mind without pondering on whether the context is appropriate?			
2.	Do you probe your interlocutor (public, pupils, supervisors, among others) for his or her expectations before suggesting an idea or giving			

	a speech?			
3.	Do you start talks (chats, seminars, or lectures) by seeking to empathize with your interlocutor?			
4.	Do you maintain a balance between speaking and listening (trying to talk less than you listen)?			
5.	Are you concerned with confirming that your interlocutor understood your ideas properly?			
6.	Do you prepare your presentations well ahead (or do you leave them to the last minute)?			
7.	Do you usually plan your presentations (seminars, lectures, among others) thoroughly (or do you do the first thing that crosses your mind)?			
8.	Do you usually think before speaking (or are you usually impulsive)?			
9.	Do you indicate the presentation or communication aims before speaking?			
10.	Do you carefully listen to opinions contrary to yours?			
11.	Are you usually indulgent and polite when silly or unrelated questions are posed?			
12.	Do you convey your ideas confidently and with thorough			

	conviction?			
13.	Do you try to stand in the listener's shoes when preparing a presentation?			
14.	Do you always seek to add to the knowledge you have on the subject of the talk?			
15.	Do you consult many references (personal or in the literature) when preparing a presentation?			
16.	Do you argue without humiliating or attacking the other participant?			
17.	Do you ponder long on your ideas before communicating them?			
18.	Are you objective while speaking, and do you avoid irrelevant details?			
19.	Do you usually treat people as your peers and respectfully?			
20.	When speaking, do you present as many new things as possible and avoid talking about what everybody already knows?			
21.	Do you organize your presentations by dividing them into main sections, i.e., introduction, body, and conclusion?			
22.	Do you try to imagine possible flaws and objections before making a presentation?			
23.	Do you always answer questions sincerely, eventually saying "I			

	don't know" when applicable?			
24.	Upon preparing a presentation, do you try to match it to the target audience, i.e., do you adapt the vocabulary and content to your interlocutors?			
25.	Do you hold strictly to the intended subject, i.e., "talk about Brazil without travelling around the world"?			
26.	Do people who want to know your opinion on some subject constantly approach you?			
27.	Is it easy for you to express your ideas?			
28.	Are you normally understood by people (or do they ask you to repeat what you have said)?			
29.	Do you accept people who think differently than you?			
30.	Do you always look for people to cooperate and support one another?			

Calculate your answer scores as follows:

Yes – 3 points

Sometimes – 2 points

No – 1 point

Add the scores together, and check the corresponding interpretation below:

30–49: You need to address this matter as soon as possible!

50–70: Fair. You must pay more attention to this subject.

71–90: You are a good communicator. However, remember that you can always improve.

2. Read and be ready to discuss the texts.

Text 1: I Am a Doctor, and You?

Once, I was invited to teach a course on my field of expertise in another country. In addition to the challenge posed by the need to express my ideas in another language, I had to confront a situation that was curious at least. After teaching the two first days of the course, I confided to a colleague, “I believe the students do not like my classes. They remain totally mute and as if frozen.” My colleague answered, “This is how it is here!” Indeed, later on a student explained to me, “Professor, here, students should not express themselves in the classroom. Once, I asked a professor what books should I read for his class, and he answered: ‘None! You just have to pay attention to what I say!’”

That discussion cleared away my doubts and also revealed a particularity, to wit, the principle or argument from authority. The argument from authority is a resource many among us use to strengthen our arguments, even when we are not at all sure about them. In science, the argument from authority might be used in two ways. First, as Bruno Latour explains in *Science in Action*, one might look for “prestigious” or “authoritative” allies to impress an interlocutor or ideological opponent. This facet of the argument from authority might make someone accept some ideas even when the ideas are poorly substantiated as a function of the speaker’s “status.” If that acceptance might happen in the academic milieu, imagine in other settings! Once, I was at the bank cashier line, and a woman started talking very enthusiastically about a TV interview of a famous doctor. Her interlocutor said that she believed a particular assertion to be groundless, to which the first speaker,

quite distraught and almost screaming, replied, “Do you pretend to know more than Dr. X?”

I do not mean to say that to use references to strengthen an argument is wrong, but I mean that some ways in which they are used are. In that same book, Bruno Latour observes, “an essay without references is like a helpless child in a large and unknown city at night: it is alone, lost, and anything might happen to it.” So I looked in Latour’s methodological rules for a strategy of protection against the “negative” side of the argument from authority, and I found the following statements:

1. Observe the setting in which the allegation or arguments chosen for analysis are placed.
2. Identify the individuals who are collecting the data to shift the “status” of allegation to that of fact, and identify the individuals who are doing the exact opposite.
3. Observe the trajectory of that allegation as a function of the clash between the two parties mentioned above.

Readers might find it difficult to perform all those steps whenever they are confronted with a new argument or allegation. However, that is precisely the type of reasoning that characterizes science.

The second negative facet of the argument from authority is, perhaps, more difficult to counterargue. It might be called *argument from head-professorship* (I have just made it up!) and can be illustrated by the story at the beginning of this text, which can be summarized in one sentence: *I am THE professor!* Once, an unhappy PhD candidate came to me at a conference and said, “I tried to debate some of the lecturer’s ideas, but he ended the discussion saying that the only one with a PhD there was him!” A lecture or written work without sound foundations might denote the weakness of the ideas themselves, and thus, the reaction of the lecturer might have been due to lack of self-confidence. Lack of

self-confidence often elicits a self-defense strategy based on attacks or protection. One such strategy is to build a wall of “authority” to avoid discussions or debates. In turn, lack of self-confidence might arise from a negative self-image resulting from a given worldview that permeates society (e.g., unfair competition) and that has a natural home in the academic milieu.

The following text published by Roberto DaMatta in the newspaper O Globo (October 24, 2007), and quoted by Miriam Goldberg in her book, *Noites de Insônia (Sleepless Nights)*, might be useful to stimulate our reflection. Before complaining that this text has nothing to do with the arguments I have discussed up to this point, please, read to the end.

Envy is a basic feeling in Brazil. A non-envious Brazilian has yet to be born. This is so powerful, that we use the verb “to have” rather than “to feel” when we speak about envy. Other human beings and other peoples feel envy (i.e., one of many feeling), but not us; envy possesses us. Taken by the perverse and human conjunction of hatred and displeasure, precisely elicited by someone else’s success. Our problem is [...] that a bright individual who, we believe, “takes” (steals, erases, represses, hinders) from us the chance to shine in that region beyond the sky. Envy, for me, is the strongest sign of a closed system in which individual autonomy is weak, and everyone spends his or her lives comparing oneself to another. Control by means of intrigue, rumor, gossip, tittle-tattle, is a proof of that incessant comparison of behaviors, which does not aim at making all equal, but to establish hierarchies, to distinguish, to grade. The horror of competition, common sense, transparency, and mobility is the other side of that culture in which to be successful is illegitimate, a disaster, and even a crime. How, then, will one not be envious of someone else’s success, being as we are persuaded that success is an act of treason against the compliant and obedient collective to which we belong? How, then, one will not feel envious, when successful people are the ones who refuse to behave as a sheep that does not attract attention, to rather become the most showy one – i.e., the symbol of selfishness and ambition?

Some people give way to the pressure, and in their despaired attempt to reconcile their personal demands with the external

expectations, in that emotional, fully non-rational collision, the best argument they can adduce is **I am a Doctor, and you?**

Text 2: What Is a Thesis?

I entered my scientific career at a time when researchers used to write megatheses. Let me explain. The master's dissertations and doctoral theses were huge, and thus, my academic immaturity led me to believe that the larger the number of pages in a dissertation, the greater the impact it would make (well, as a matter of fact, that is also true, but that impact is not necessarily a scientific one!).

In time, a new perspective developed, and the traditional dissertation or thesis was replaced by a more compact version. Many graduate programs allowed candidates to write independent chapters, each one corresponding to an article to be submitted to some specialized journal. The reasons behind that shift were many: to make sure that academic essays would be effectively published; to improve the scientific production of graduate programs and professors; to meet the demands of the governmental evaluation agency (CAPES) to improve the quality of graduate programs; and also – although no one dares to admit it – to facilitate the task of the dissertation committees.

Some people still believe that the traditional model for dissertations and theses was the ideal one because it enables researchers to report on the full experience he or she underwent while trying to answer the scientific questions he or she posed. In contrast, other people adduce that published articles make studies spread faster, thus avoiding, as Mário Prata would say, the condemnation of studies to become historical footnotes stored in dusty libraries. Both sides put forth good arguments in support of their views, but I believe that the problem here is that both of these positions are extreme.

I believe that much of the information included in dissertations and theses might be discarded because it does not contribute to make reading more pleasant and would also not be published. The dissertations with article layout are at risk of becoming excessively objective and synthetic, when some particular features are not carefully taken into consideration. However, two crucial questions should be answered before addressing that polarized debate, to wit: (1) What is a thesis? (2) What type of professionals do we want to train?

What Is a Thesis?

There is much to do and to learn about nature, life, and people. A scientist is an individual eager to always learn a little bit more who looks for new methods to answer questions that trouble him or her. And once the answers are found, he or she will pose new questions. It is a fantastic and fascinating vicious circle. Dissertations are a product of a part of a researcher's life, in which he or she records that never-ending experience of asking and answering. For some, developing a thesis is pleasurable, while for others it is painful. In *Noites de Insônia (Sleepless Nights)*, the anthropologist Miriam Goldberg comments that the sociologist Howard Becker "did not suffer much" to complete his training, while she is

...one of that type of people who suffer all the time: when writing a course final essay, preparing and defending the dissertation, to obtain a postdoctoral grant, to apply for a professorship at the Institute of Philosophy and Social Science (Instituto de Filosofia e Ciências Sociais – IFCS). And when I believed I could finally relax, endless suffering began: when requesting a grant to the National Council of Scientific and Technological Development (Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico – CNPq), when renewing the CNPq grant, when writing articles to be published in prestigious scientific journals, when writing books and expecting that people would read them and like them, when supervising students, when facing the criticism made by dissertation committees to my supervisees, when presenting papers at the National

Association of Graduate Studies and Research in Social Science (Associação Nacional de Pós-Graduação e Pesquisa em Ciências Sociais – ANPOCS) and the Brazilian Association of Anthropology (Associação Brasileira de Antropologia – ABA), when giving lectures, when teaching undergraduate and graduate programs, and so forth.

I prefer to believe that such is a quite natural type of suffering, and as a matter of fact, I like it very much because it is a part of the scientist's job description. I do not allude to suffering as such but to the experience it affords. A thesis allows for the full unfolding of a given experience because it is the place where the many elements constructed and discovered in the course of years articulate to make sense. A thesis serves to bring some light to a place up to then only occupied by the darkness of doubt and uncertainty, or even to generate more doubts and uncertainties. A thesis is an integral part of a researcher's experience, and as such, it should carry its mark and reflect the skills required from a scientist-in-training: to know how to think, to know how to pose questions. The genuine work begins only the day after the dissertation defense. That is the moment when the dust starts settling, and scientific maturity shows the first hesitating steps of its journey. Nothing can be more natural in any profession!

What Type of Professionals Do We Want to Train?

In his book *Diálogos com Cientistas (Dialogues with Scientists)*, Professor Eloi Garcia paraphrases Einstein to emphasize that posing questions is the most essential aspect. More than posing questions, it is necessary to ask the right questions. According to Professor Garcia, a scientist must do science in a humane manner. That is, he or she should be productive, open paths, draft new scenarios, and be flexible when thinking. A little more pragmatically but without dismissing the values described in Garcia's book, I believe that scientists should be able to think, to reach beyond the mere reproduction of laboratory protocols or

experiments designed by someone else. Scientists ought to be able to make criticisms and self-criticism on a steady basis. I do not allude to paralyzing criticism but to criticism that is constructive and helps to set new directions. In addition, a scientist-in-training should be taught about the freedom of thought and that type of “guided” autonomy that leads to self-confidence.

Returning to the format of scientific writing, none of the models discussed above ensure that the abovementioned qualities and skills will be incorporated and developed. I have read theses in traditional format, whose authors were unable to defend their content, as well as articles so synthetic and signed by so many authors, that it was impossible to identify the intellectual contribution of the master’s or PhD student. I believe that the best product we might hope for is a highly qualified and trained professional. Once this is achieved, we will certainly produce good scientific articles and a new type of scientist also able to train qualified human resources. For that purpose, I believe that a slight reformulation of the graduate programs is in order. For instance, I have systematically pointed to the need for scientists-in-training to have opportunities to develop their writing and speaking skills. In addition, philosophy of science ought to be mandatorily included in the curriculum. How might one expect to train scientists without showing to them what science is?

It seems that the problem is the same as the one we have to address in the public calls for tenured positions: lack of preparation. In her book, *Nos Bastidores da Ciência (The Backstage of Science)*, Professor Debora Menezes emphatically corroborates that observation. We attend graduate programs, we are prepared for conducting research, but we are not prepared to teach. Nevertheless, in the calls for tenured positions and later on in our professorial careers, we are also assessed regarding our teaching skills.

What Do We Want for the Future?

We must think our policies over. What is more relevant for the advancement of science and technology in Brazil: one article published in a high-impact journal, or a high-impact scientist? Please, do not answer that both of these things are inherently interconnected because they are not! Therefore, the format of a thesis matters very little when there is a well-trained professional behind it, one who is able to take ownership of that which is written.

Text 3: The Science I Imagine and the Science There Is

Once, I entered a hot debate with a friend. The topic of the discussion was science. He argued that science is objective, neutral, and unbiased by definition. I agreed only with the expression “by definition” because science is very seldom objective, neutral, and unbiased in reality. I am sure that assertion will be read with dismay by purists, i.e., the ones who viscerally defend those “myths” about science. Science is a product of the human intellect, made by people and for people. Like every human product, science is impregnated with subjectivity and bias. This condition is how human beings are. The truth is that we, as scientists, try to be objective, neutral, and unbiased. However, that is not possible most of the time.

I remember an assertion made by Lynn Margulis about her work regarding the “Endosymbiotic Theory.” Lynn Margulis was born in 1938 and earned a PhD in UC Berkeley in 1963. Her theory caused some scientific chaos because it ran against the ideas prevalent at that time as well as against the *status quo* in science, which was then controlled by male scientists. While observing the cell organelles, scientists found that mitochondria and chloroplasts, e.g., have their own DNA. What does this finding mean? I used to tell my students that it is as if we have small “aliens” inside us because the genetic material of those organelles is completely

different from the material in the remainder of the cells of an animal or plant body. Margulis suggested that prokaryote cells were “taken inside” by eukaryote cells in the course of cell evolution. Thus, the “incorporated” beings entered a type of symbiotic life with the eukaryote cells. I always found that discovery fascinating because in addition to its logical implications for the understanding of cell biology, it made Margulis argue later that as concerns evolution, “cooperation” is as meaningful as “competition” (which is a notion that dominates in evolutionary biology). Margulis’ paper was rejected several times (approximately 15!) before it was published in *Journal of Theoretical Biology*. Publication was followed by criticism and critics (these are two different things, dear reader, because, fortunately or unfortunately, some people are specialists in merely criticizing). However, Margulis won the war! Margulis’ idea had been initially rejected for several reasons: (1) Because it ran against the prevailing paradigm. (2) Because a woman was the one who ran against the prevailing paradigm. (3) Because she dared to do science at a time when science was ruled by a dominant male group.

I told my friend that story, and he jumped to answer, “That doesn’t happen anymore! Our society advanced as concerns the ideals of equality! Women earned their place, especially in science.” I cannot disagree with that statement; however, we are still quite far from the ideal situation. In fact, many things are still at the level of ideas. Some studies of scientometrics found evidence indicating that women’s papers are less cited than papers authored by males in some scientific fields. There is also evidence showing that Latin American authors are less cited than their North American and European peers, even when all of them publish in the same journals. I do not believe that the problem is that women or Latin Americans produce low-quality science. Low-quality

science has no color, religion, race, or citizenship, and the same applies to high-quality science. However, we cannot deny the fact that in some places, scientists have better conditions and admirable infrastructure to produce science, although such fact is no warranty for products of superior quality.

The human side of scientists also comes to the foreground when their beliefs are challenged, their hypotheses are questioned, or their pride is hurt. The biologist Edward Wilson, an expert on social insects and doubtlessly one of the brightest minds in modern biology, elicited strong emotional reactions upon founding *sociobiology*. According to this field of science, much of human behavior might be explained based on evolution and genes. A more radical version of sociobiology sought to fully eliminate the role of culture. Wilson's first writings were quite radical, and over time, he developed a softer version of sociobiology. However, in his initial phase, he was the target of heavy criticism and eventually the victim of physical attack. The verbal attacks were countless. One of his main advocates was Richard Dawkins, who is perhaps the scientist who contributed most to the dissemination of the hypothesis, positing a genetic or biological basis for human behavior with his book "The Selfish Gene." Here, I am not taking any position regarding that subject, I am merely seeking to illustrate how passionate, and even irrational, scientists might be when someone appears and challenges the prevailing ideas. Let Wilson tell us a striking episode in his scientific career:

On August 1, 1977, sociobiology was on the cover of Time. On November 22, I received the National Medal of Science from President Carter for my contributions to the new discipline. Two months later, at the annual meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, held in Washington, demonstrators seized the stage as I was about to give a lecture, dumped a pitcher of ice water on my head, and chanted, "Wilson,

you're all wet." The ice-water episode may be the only occasion in recent American history in which a scientist was physically attacked, however mildly, simply for the expression of an idea. How could an entomologist with a penchant for solitude provoke a tumult of this proportion?

I believe that we will advance toward satisfactory scientific education when scientists-in-training are confronted with the actual conditions of science production and when they are challenged to ponder on the beliefs and ideologies that are presented to us.

3. Visit a couple of academic presentations and decide which type they were and which skills the presenter used.

THEME III: Models of communication

A. The Teacher-Centred Mode

1. Lecture Plan:

1. Linear models (Mathematical model) of communication.
2. Interactive model of communication.
3. Non-linear models of communication.
4. Multidimensional models of communication.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Barnlund D. C. A transactional model of communication / D. C. Barnlund // Mortensen C. D. Communication theory. – 2nd ed. – New Brunswick, New Jersey : Transaction, 2008. – P. 45–57.

2. Baxter G. The Helical Model of Communication for Idea-Generating People / Gerald Baxter // The Journal of Business Education. – 1985. – Volume 60. – P. 353–355.

3. Chapanis A. Men, machines, and models / Alphonse Chapanis // American Psychologist. – 1961. – No. 16 (3). – P. 113–131.

4. Christensen L. L. The Hands-On Guide for Science Communicators: A Step-by-Step Approach to Public Outreach / Lars Lindberg Christensen. – Munich : Springer, 2008. – 270 p.

5. Craig R. T. Communication Theory as a Field / Robert T. Craig // Communication Theory. – 1999. – May. – No. 9. – P. 119–161.

6. Deutsch K. On Communication Models in the Social Sciences / Karl W. Deutsch // Public Opinion Quarterly. – 1952. – No. 16. – P. 356–380.

7. Lasswell H. The Structure and Function of Communication in Society / Harold Lasswell // The Communication of Ideas. – New York : Institute for Religious and Social Studies, 1948. – P. 37–51.

8. Littlejohn S. W. Theories of human communication / Stephen W. Littlejohn, Karen A. Foss. – 9th edition. – Belmont, CA : Thomson Wadsworth, 2008. – 395 p.

9. Miller K. Communication Theories: Perspectives, Processes, and Contexts / Katherine Miller. – edition. – Boston, MA : McGraw-Hill Higher Education, 2005. – 368 p.

10. Schramm W. How Communication Works / Wilbur Schramm // The Process and Effects of Communication. – Urbana : University of Illinois Press, 1954. – P. 3–26.

11. Shannon C. E. The mathematical theory of communication / Shannon C. E., Weaver W. – Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1949. – 117 p.

12. Trevisani D. A semiotic models approach to the analysis of international / intercultural communication / Daniele Trevisani // Proceedings of the 9th International and Intercultural Communication Conference. – 1992. – 19–21 May. – Miami : University of Miami. – P. 257–289.

3. Glossary:

Buzz Words

model of communication	speaking
addresser	listening
addressee	language code
message	channel
feedback	encoder
decoder	information

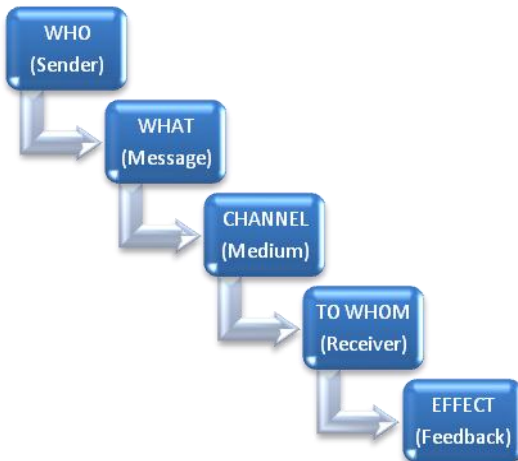
4. Fundamentals:

1. Linear models (Mathematical model) of communication.

Models of communication have been elaborated in order to explain the process of communication from different points of view and with the emphasis upon different components or constituent parts of the process of communication.

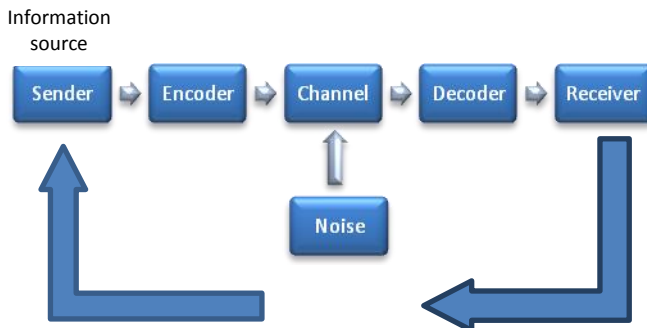
Lasswell's communication model was developed by communication theorist Harold D. Lasswell in 1948. Lasswell's model of communication (also known as action model or linear model or one way model of communication) is regarded as one the most influential communication models.

Figure 1. Components of Lasswell's Communication Model



Shannon and Weaver model of communication was created in 1948. This model is specially designed to develop the effective communication between sender and receiver.

Figure 2. Shannon and Weaver's Model of Communication



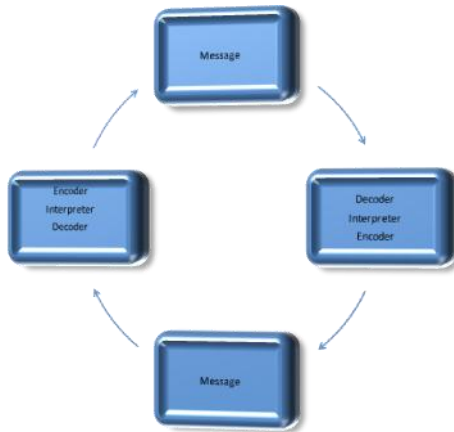
2. Interactive model of communication.

The main flaw in the linear model is that it depicts communication as a one-way process where speakers only speak and never listen. The linear model was soon replaced with an interactional view in which the speaker and the listener were seen as exchanging turns at speaking and listening. This model presupposes active participation of all who take part in the act of communication. Communication is viewed as a series of discrete (broken) acts, which have the beginning and the end.

Wilber Schramm proposed the model of communication in 1954. Information is of no use unless and until it is carefully put into words and conveyed to others. Encoding plays a very important role because it initiates the process of communication by converting the thought into content. When the information reaches the recipient his prime responsibility is to understand what the

speaker intends to convey. Unless and until the second party is able to understand or decode the information what the sender wants to communicate, the message is actually of no use. Thus encoding and decoding are two most important factors of an effective communication without which information can never flow between two individuals.

Figure 3. Schramm's Model of Communication

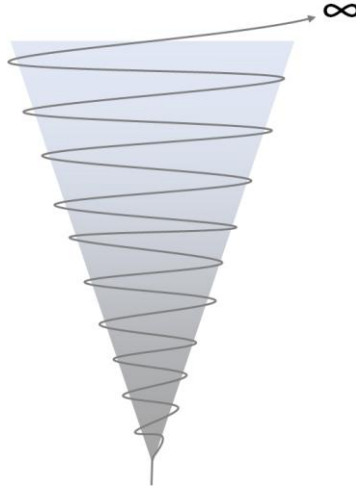


3. Non-linear models of communication.

Communication is viewed as transactional process in which each person serves simultaneously as speaker and listener; it is the process of simultaneous sending and receiving of messages by communicators who depend on one another as the creators of the communicative act. Communication is here not only a process of sending / receiving the message, but a process in which people create relationships, interact with each other.

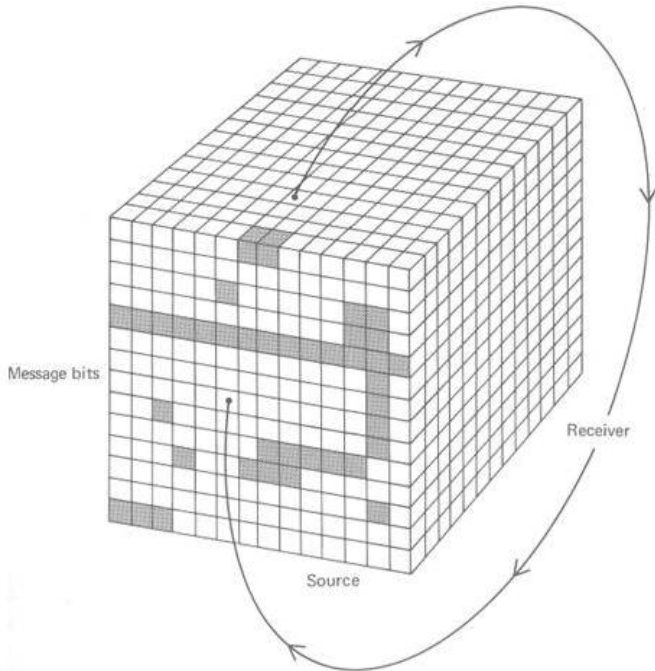
Frank Dance proposed a communication model inspired by a helix in 1967, known as Helical Model of Communication.

Figure 4. Helical Model of Communication



Sam Becker proposed a communication model in “The Prospect of Rhetoric” (1968), which is known as Becker’s Mosaic Model of Communication. According to him, the classical models of communication are not very useful in contemporary communication. The model explains the complexity of human communication. It also describes the randomness of the origin of messages and communication as a dynamic process. The model stresses the meaning of messages.

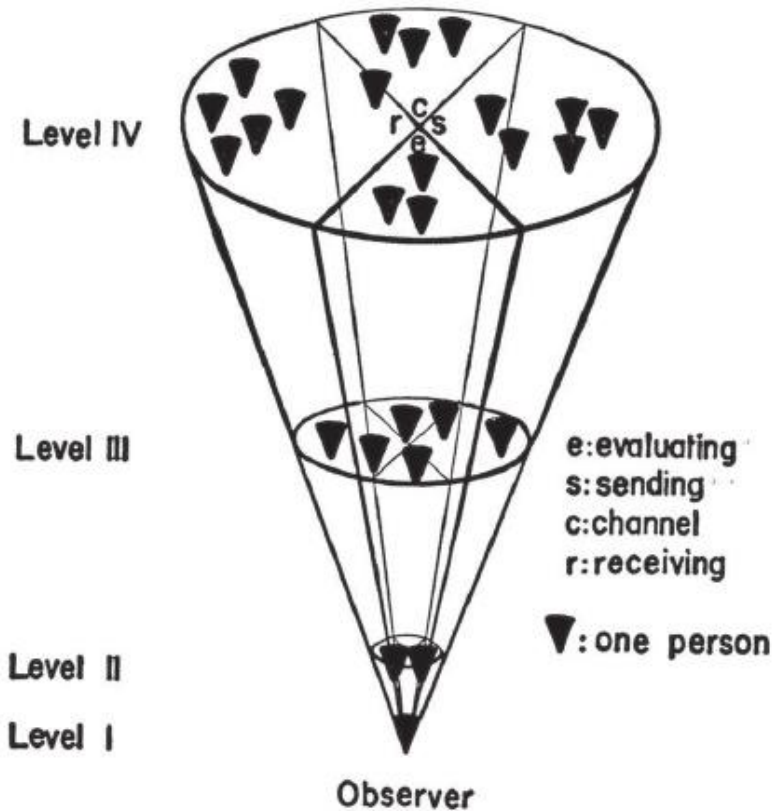
Figure 5. Becker’s Mosaic Model of Communication



4. Multidimensional models of communication.

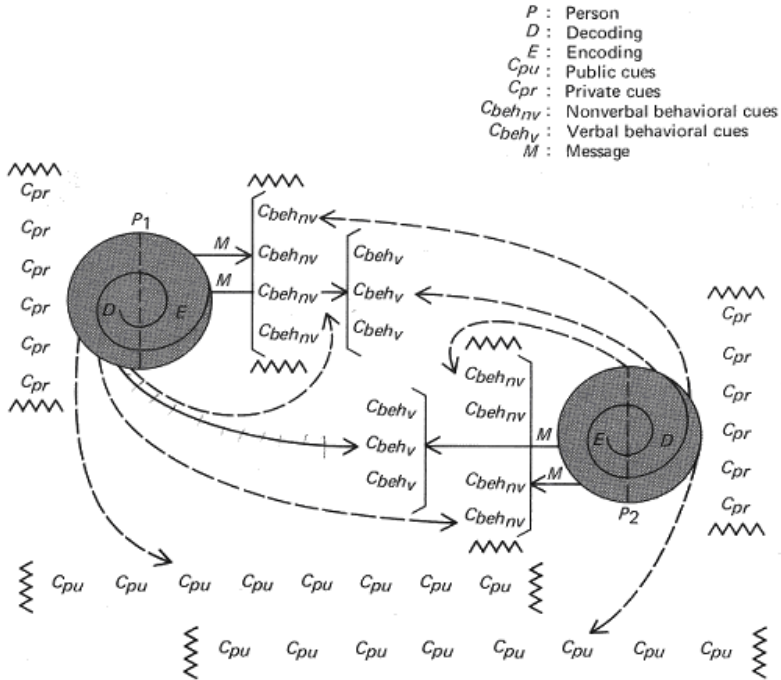
Ruesch and Bateson specify that human communication operates on four ascending embedded network levels of complexity: Level I is intrapersonal communication (embodied consciousness), Level II is interpersonal communication (dyadic interaction), Level III group communication (social interaction), and Level IV cultural communication (inter-group culture).

Figure 6. Ruesch and Bateson Functional Model of Communication



Dean Barnlund proposed a transactional model of communication in 1970 for basic interpersonal communication which articulates that sending and receiving of messages happens simultaneously between people which is popularly known as Barnlund's Transactional Model of Communication.

Figure 7. Barnlund's Transactional Model of Communication



5. Questions for Control on Lecture Three:

1. What is the purpose of models of communication?
2. What are the components of Lasswell's Communication Model?
3. What communication model is specially designed to develop the effective communication between sender and receiver?
4. What is the main flaw in the linear model of communication?
5. What is the second period in the development of communication models?
6. What is the essence of the interactional view?
7. What is the essence of the non-linear approach to communication?

8. What are the most popular multidimensional models of communication?

B. The Practical-Class Mode

1. Questions to Be Discussed:

1. What is the aim of “AIDA” model?
2. What are the reasons for speech anxiety?
3. What is the nature of speech anxiety?
4. In what way can one handle nervousness?
5. What are the main guidelines for building confidence?

2. Practical Tasks to Do:

1. Match the items of interpersonal communication with their definitions.

- _____ interpersonal communication
- _____ encoding
- _____ feedback
- _____ semantic noise
- _____ feedforward
- _____ relationship messages
- _____ sender – receiver
- _____ signal-to-noise ratio
- _____ communication as a transactional process
- _____ cultural context

1) messages sent back to the source in response to the source’s messages;

2) each person in the interpersonal communication act;

3) information about messages that are yet to be sent;

4) interference that occurs when the receiver does not understand the meanings intended by the sender;

5) the rules and norms, beliefs and attitudes of the people communicating;

6) communication as an ongoing process in which each part depends on each other part;

7) communication that takes place between two persons who have a relationship between them;

8) messages referring to the connection between the two people in communication;

9) a measure of meaningful message compared to interference;

10) the process of sending messages, for example, in speaking or writing.

2. How would you give feedback in these various situations?

Think about one or two sentences for each of them.

a) a friend – whom you like but don't have romantic feelings for – asks you for a date;

b) your lecturer asks you to evaluate the course;

c) a bank manager asks if you want a credit card;

d) a homeless person smiles at you on the street.

3. Study the following pieces of communicative acts and categorize them according to the setting, types and functions of communication.

1. A: It's a worry isn't it?

B: What?

A: Your money (yes) organizing your money affairs.

B: It's ... A big worry.

C: Mmm

B: I've got to manage my money to look after myself in my old age.

A: You're in it.

B: What?

A: You're in it – you're in your old age.

B: I might live for another ten years. Be...

C: Be a bloody miracle [laughter].

B: What? What did she say?

A: Be a miracle – after the life you’ve led. If you’d led a nice sedentary existence and hadn’t drunk or smoked you might’ve been able to look forward to a telegram from the Queen.

C: Be a thrill!

A: A big thrill.

2. A: Where do you keep your detergents and stuff?

B: Next aisle – middle row of shelves.

A: Oh, yeah, got it. Is this the smallest you’ve got?

B: Yeah, what’d you...

A: ... it’s a bit

B: Mmm – the Down Earth brand’s on special.

A: OK, right ... Mmm three fifty-nine – still not cheap.

B: Well, that’s the smallest they made I’m afraid.

3. This is Dr Graham Lowe. We are closed for the weekend, but if you want to contact me after hours, you will need to do two things. Firstly, after the beep at the end of my message, leave your full name and telephone number. Then, you’ll need to hang up and then dial my pager activating number which is 017331923 which will make my pager beep. That’s 017331923. I will then ring through as soon as possible to get your message, and then I’ll ring you. We’ll be open as usual on Monday morning at 8.45 am. Beep!

C. The Individual Mode

1. Information to Be Studied:

1. “AIDA” – psychological model of a professional communication.

2. Reasons for speech anxiety.

3. Ways of speech anxiety overcoming.

4. Psychological self-training.

2. *List of Recommended Literature:*

1. Волкова Н. П. Професійно-педагогічна комунікація: навч. посіб. / Н. П. Волкова. – К. : Видавничий центр „Академія”, 2006. – 256 с. – (Серія „Альма-матер”).

2. Леонтьев А. А. Психологические особенности деятельности лектора / А. А. Леонтьев. – М. : Знание, 1981. – 80 с. – (Серия „Методика лекторского мастерства и ораторского искусства”).

3. Ребрик С. Б. Презентация: Подготовка и проведение: 10 уроков: Руководство для корпоративного и индивидуального обучения & Дайджест из книг С. Ребрика / Сергей Ребрик. – М. : ЭКСМО, 2005 – 200 с. : ил. – (Бизнес. Политика).

4. Сопер П. Л. Основы искусства речи / Поль Л. Сопер. – 2 испр. изд. – М. : Прогресс; Прогресс-Академия, 1992. – 416 с.

5. Томан І. Мистецтво говорити / Іржі Томан. – К. : Політвидав України, 1986. – 223 с.

6. Byrns J. H. Speak for yourself: An Introduction to Public Speaking / / James Henderson Byrns. – 3-d edition. – New York : McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1994. – 329 p.

7. Race P. How to Study: Practical Tips for University Students / Phil Race. – Malden; Oxford : Blackwell Publishing Ltd, 2003. – 248 p.

THEME IV: Language as the medium of human communication

A. The Teacher-Centred Mode

1. Lecture Plan:

1. Spoken versus written language.
2. Lexical density.
3. Indicating status.
4. Footing.
5. Protecting face.
6. Conversational style.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Brown P. Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage / Penelope Brown, Stephen C. Levinson. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 1978. – 321 p.
2. Christensen L. L. The Hands-On Guide for Science Communicators: A Step-by-Step Approach to Public Outreach / Lars Lindberg Christensen. – Munich : Springer, 2008. – 270 p.
3. Corder P. Introducing Applied Linguistics / S. Pit Corder. – London : Penguin Books, 1973. – 392 p.
4. Firth J. R. Papers in Linguistics, 1934–1951 / John R. Firth. – London : Oxford University Press, 1957. – 233 p.
5. Goffman E. Forms of Talk / Erving Goffman. – Philadelphia : University of Pennsylvania Press, 1981. – 335 p.

6. Goodenough W. H. Culture Language and Society / Ward H. Goodenough. – 2nd revised edition. – Menlo Park, Calif. : Benjamin Cummings Pub. Co., 1981 – 134 p.

7. Halliday M. A. K. Spoken and Written Language / Michael Alexander Kirkwood Halliday. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1985. – 109 p.

8. Kramsch C. Language and Culture / Claire Kramsch. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1998. – 134 p.

9. Sapir E. Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech / Edward Sapir. – New York : Harcourt & Brace, 1921. – 284 p.

10. Tannen D. Conversational Style. Analyzing Talk Among Friends / Deborah Tannen. – Norwood : Ablex, 1984. – 182 p.

11. Tannen D. Framing in Discourse / Debora Tannen. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1997. – P. 288 p.

3. Glossary:

Buzz Words

spoken language	written language
time	space
analysis	lexical density
deictic	deixis
framing	positive face
negative face	conversational style

4. Fundamentals:

1. Spoken versus written language.

The spoken medium is directly linked to the time of its production and to the perception by those who are present during the short-time verbal event. By contrast, writing is viewed as the transformation of spoken language into more permanent, visible signs on a page.

Scholars have identified the following seven characteristics of spoken / written languages:

1. Speech is transient (short-time, temporary, occasional), rather than permanent. Written language, by contrast, can be stored, retrieved, and recollected, and responses can be delayed.

2. Speech is additive. The information conveyed in writing is hierarchically ordered within the clause structure, and is linearly arranged on the page.

3. Speech is aggregative. Writing has come to be viewed as the medium that fosters analysis, logical reasoning and abstract categorization.

4. Speech is redundant. Written language tends to avoid redundancy.

5. Speech is loosely structured grammatically and is lexically scanty; writing is grammatically compact and lexically dense.

6. Speech tends to be people-centered; writing tends to be topic-centered.

7. Speech is context dependent; writing is context-reduced.

2. Lexical density.

The question of lexical density is closely connected with the question of grammar in written and spoken languages. Spoken and written languages also differ in the ratio of content words to grammatical or function words. The number of lexical words per clause is referred to as *lexical density*.

3. Indicating status.

Aim, function of communicative act (to entertain, to make somebody do something, to provide information), position of interlocutors in time and space – all this influences our choice of language form – whether written or spoken language. Another important factor for the choice of language is social one. In verbal

encounters, information people enclose in their messages, is anchored in the mind of speaker by particular words. These words which we use in a communicative act to anchor some kind of info in the mind of our interlocutor are called *deictics*.

Deixis – process by which language indexes the physical, temporal, and social location of the speaker at the moment of utterance.

4. Footing.

The use of social deictics like pronouns, forms of address, or names, is one way speakers align themselves to the cultural context as they understand it. Changes in intonation and pronunciation can also indicate changes in our perception of our role as a participant in an interaction, and in our alignment to others. Erving Goffman called such a *positioning footing*, i.e. the stance we take up to ourselves and to the others present as expressed in the way we manage the production or reception of utterances.

Changes in footing correspond to a change in the way we perceive events. A change in footing is connected with a change in our frame for events. *Framing*, or the ability to apply a frame of interpretation to an utterance or speech event through a contextualization cue, is our way of linking the speech event to other similar speech events we have experienced, and to anticipate future events. It is by sharing frames of interpretation that people know that they share the same culture.

5. Protecting face.

The ultimate aim of negotiating frames and footings in conversation is to protect one's own and other participants' *face* at all times. Members of a cultural group need to feel respected and not impinged upon in their autonomy, pride, and self-sufficiency (*negative face*). They also need to be reinforced in their view of

themselves as polite, considerate, respectful members of their culture (*positive face*).

6. Conversational style.

Different contexts of situation and different contexts of culture call for different conversational styles. The orate-literate continuum gets realized differently in different cultural genres, like interviews and friendly conversations, but also in different cultural traditions within one genre. No doubt people are able to display a variety of conversational styles in various situations, and one should avoid equating one person or one culture with one discourse style. However, by temperament and upbringing, people do tend to prefer one or the other style in a given situation. This style, in turn, forms part of their cultural identity and sense of self.

5. Questions for Control on Lecture Four:

1. What is the difference between spoken and written language?
2. Should a scientist stick to rules of lexical density in his speech?
3. What is the task of deictics in a speech?
4. What are stylistic devices of a communication?
5. What conversational styles may a professional use?

B. The Practical-Class Mode

1. Questions to Be Discussed:

1. Selecting a topic, determining the general and specific purposes of a science communication.
2. The audience analysis.
3. Settings familiarization.
4. Material gathering, selection and handling.
5. Prepared and extemporaneously speaking.

6. Preparation and choice of visual aids. Their role in a science communication.

2. Practical Tasks to Do:

1. The following text gives you certain important information about the language of science and its most noticeable features. Memorize this information and do the assignments given after the text.

Scientific Prose Style

Scientific style is employed in professional communication to prove a hypothesis, to create new concepts, to disclose the laws of phenomena, etc.

The proper medium of scientific prose is ... a generalized language that may be defined as a symbolic algebra of which all known languages are translations. One can adequately translate scientific literature because the original scientific expression is itself a translation” (E. Sapir).

The first and most noticeable feature of this style is the logical sequence of utterances with clear indication of their interrelations, and interdependence. It will not be an exaggeration to say that in no other functional style do we find such a developed system of connectives (logical connectors) as in scientific prose. Logical connectors (transitional expressions) are linking words and phrases which establish the logical relationship between ideas within a sentence or between sentences. They are thus guideposts for readers that help them to better follow the text. As transitional expressions they may be grouped according to their meaning and function (Time: first, next, finally; Space: above, what is more, next to, etc.; Addition: moreover, furthermore, etc.; Contrast: however, besides, etc.; Comparison: likewise, similarly, etc.; Conclusion: thus, therefore, etc.).

The second feature, perhaps, the most conspicuous, is the use of terms specific to each given branch of science. No other field of human activity is so prolific in coining new words as science is.

The third characteristic feature of scientific style is what we call sentence – patterns. They are of three types: postulatory, argumentative and formulative.

The next feature, which makes scientific style distinguishable from others is frequent use of foot-notes.

The impersonality of scientific writings can also be considered a typical feature of this style. This quality is mainly revealed in the frequent use of passive constructions. The impersonal passive constructions are frequently used with the verbs *suppose*, *assume*, *presume*, *point out*, *infer*, etc. as in ‘It should be pointed out’, ‘It must not be assumed’, ‘It must be emphasized’, ‘It can be inferred’, etc.

Formal academic English will normally avoid: contractions (won’t = will not); addressing the reader directly e. g. The data can be seen; phrasal verbs (find out = discover); adverbs in the initial or final positions (the middle position is preferable); inappropriate negative forms (not ... many → few, not ... much → little); short forms of the words or slang (exam → examination); figures at the beginning of the sentence (97 people → ninety-seven people).

Academic writing tends to avoid personal pronouns (I or we) for framing a piece of writing and shows preference toward impersonal style.

The characteristic features enumerated above do not cover all the peculiarities of scientific prose, but they are the most essential ones.

2. Consider the research papers titles given below and decide which of them were written by an English professor and which by a Ukrainian colleague? Give your arguments.

1. On the problem of Mastering Academic Writing in Foreign Languages.

2. Mastering Academic Writing in Foreign Languages: Problems, Solutions and Costs.

3. Teaching of English Academic Writing Gives Important Benefits.

4. Teaching of English Academic Writing as an important pedagogical Activity.

3. Compare the following pairs of sentences. What features of formality or informality can you find in these sentences?

1. Will you write me back as soon as possible? I'm waiting for your reply.	1. I would greatly appreciate hearing from you at your earliest convenience.
2. I really can't comment on the findings of this paper.	2. I am not currently in a position to provide any comments on the findings of this paper.
3. If you need any further details, please let me know.	3. I should be pleased to provide any further details you request.
4. What can be done to improve the state of our economy.	4. We now need to consider what can be done to improve our economy.
5. The book doesn't raise many important issues.	5. The book raises few important issues.

4. Reduce the informality of each sentence.

1. Then it will be shown how teachers can utilize this method.
2. The investigation didn't yield any new results.
3. The experiment will be over in three months.
4. You can clearly see the difference between these two sets of data.
5. This approach does not promise much effect.

6. 1,500 papers listed in the journal Linguistic Abstracts in 2005 were in English.

7. This lab is a research site of biologists and chemists.

8. Our new research assistant is a nice guy.

5. Below is a list of some widespread logical connectors. As far as possible group them into their functions according to the classification presented in the section “Reading”.

accordingly	in conclusion	consequently
although	in contrast	despite
as	in fact	due to
as a matter of fact	in other words	finally
as a result	in spite of	firstly
as far as	nevertheless	for example
as long as	on the contrary	furthermore
as to	on the other hand	hence
at the same time	that is (i.e.)	however
because of	therefore	in brief

6. Make up a vocabulary of linguistic terms used in the text of this Unit. Try to compile a short vocabulary of the terms most frequently used in your field / subject.

C. The Individual Mode

1. Information to Be Studied:

1. Analysis of extralinguistic conditions of a science communication.
2. Material gathering, selection and handling.
3. Choice of visuals for a science communication.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Сопер П. Л. Основы искусства речи / Поль Л. Сопер. – 2 испр. изд. – М. : Прогресс; Прогресс-Академия, 1992. – 416 с.
2. Томан І. Мистецтво говорити / Іржі Томан. – К. : Політвидав України, 1986. – 223 с.
3. Фалькович Э. М. Искусство лектора / Э. М. Фалькович. – М. : Государственное издательство политической литературы, 1960. – 262 с.
4. Царьова С. О. Ділова англійська мова: Презентації (комунікативна компетенція): Навчально-методичний посібник для студентів середнього і вищого рівня навчання економічних спеціальностей / Світлана Олексіївна Царьова, Харківський держ. політехнічний ун-т. – Харків : ХДПУ, 2000. – 48 с.
5. Bowen B. M. Look Here! Visual Aids in Language Teaching / Betty Morgan Bowen. – London; Basingstoke : Macmillan Publishers LTD, 1994. – 111 p.
6. Byrns J. H. Speak for yourself: An Introduction to Public Speaking / James Henderson Byrns. – 3-d edition. – New York : McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1994. – 329 p.
7. Emden J. van, Becker L. Presentation Skills for Students / Joan van Emden, Lucinda Becker. – Houndmills; New York : Palgrave Macmillan, 2004. – 142 p.
8. Race P. How to Study: Practical Tips for University Students / Phil Race. – Malden; Oxford : Blackwell Publishing Ltd, 2003. – 248 p.

3. Questions to Be Discussed:

1. What can help a person to make a communication effective?
2. What issues should be considered while planning a communication?
3. Why is defining audience expectations important?
4. How does one discover an audience expectations?

5. What is demographic analysis? What are key factual categories about an audience?

6. Why is measuring an audience's knowledge about your topic important?

7. Why is understanding an audience's attitude toward the topic important?

8. What for does a speaker determine the general purpose of the speech?

9. What are the sources of information?

10. What are the ways to prepare necessary amount of information?

11. What is better: to make no notes or to prepare thorough notes for a science communication?

12. Into what types are visual aids divided?

13. What principles should one follow in designing visuals?

14. What is the best way to present visuals?

THEME V: Conversational communication and types of communicative messages: verbal, non-verbal

A. The Teacher-Centred Mode

1. Lecture Plan:

1. The process of conversation.
2. Opening conversations techniques.
3. Maintaining conversation.
4. The nature of verbal / non-verbal messages.
5. The relative importance of verbal and non-verbal communication.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Axtell R. E. Do's and Taboos of Hosting International Visitors / Roger R. Axtell. – New York : Wiley, 1993. – 256 p.
2. Christensen L. L. The Hands-On Guide for Science Communicators: A Step-by-Step Approach to Public Outreach / Lars Lindberg Christensen. – Munich : Springer, 2008. – 270 p.
3. DeVito J. A. Human Communication: The Basic Course / Joseph A. DeVito. – 6th ed. – New York : Harper Collins College Publishers, 1994. – 328 p.
4. McLaughlin M. Conversation: How to Talk Is Organized / Margaret McLaughlin. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1984. – 365 p.
5. Rundquist S. Indirectness: Gender Study of Flaunting Grice's Maxims / Suellen Rundquist // Journal of Pragmatics. – 1992. – No. 18. – P. 431–449.

6. Tannen D. Talking from 9 to 5 / Deborah Tannen. – New York : Morrow, 1994. – 376 p.

7. Trager G. L. The Typology of Paralanguage / George L. Trager // Anthropological Linguistics. – 1961. – No. 3. – P. 17–21.

3. Glossary:

Buzz Words

conversation	face-to-face communication
online communication	greeting
phatic communication	interaction
message	feedforward
business	feedback
closing	opening techniques
maintaining conversation	proxemics
posture	gesture

4. Fundamentals:

1. The process of conversation.

Conversation can be defined as relatively informal social interaction in which the roles of speaker and hearer are exchanged in a non-automatic fashion under the collaborative management of all parties.

Most often conversation takes place face-to-face. But today much conversation also takes place online.

Conversation takes place in 5 steps: opening, feedforward, business, feedback, and closing.

The first step is to open the conversation, usually with some verbal or non-verbal greeting.

Feedforward is information about messages before you send them.

Business is the substance or focus of the conversation.

Feedback tells the speaker what effect he or she is having on listeners. On the basis of this feedback, the speaker may adjust, modify, strengthen, deemphasize, or change the content or form of the message.

Closing signals the end of accessibility.

The business is the longest part of the conversation. The opening and the closing are usually about the same length, and the feedforward and feedback are usually about equal in length.

2. Opening conversations techniques.

- Cute-flippant openers
- Innocuous openers
- Direct openers

3. Maintaining conversation.

The defining feature of conversation is that the roles of speaker and listener are exchanged throughout the interaction.

Speaker Cues

As a speaker you regulate the conversation through two major types of cues. *Turn-maintaining cues* enable you to maintain the role of speaker. *Turn-yielding cues* tell the listener that you're finished and wish to exchange the role of speaker for the role of listener.

Listener Cues

As a listener you can regulate the conversation by using three types of cues. First, *turn-requesting cues* tell the speaker that you would like to take a turn as speaker. Second, through *turn-denying cues* you indicate your reluctance to assume the role of speaker by. Third, through *back-channeling cues* you communicate various meanings back to the speaker – but without assuming the role of the speaker.

4. The nature of verbal / non-verbal messages.

In communication people basically use two major signal systems – the verbal and the non-verbal. The verbal system studies how spoken and written language serves as a system for communicating meaning, how it can be used effectively, and how it creates problems when it isn't.

Verbal messages may vary in directness being direct and indirect.

As for non-verbal communication, it is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless messages.

5. The relative importance of verbal and non-verbal communication.

An interesting question is: When two people are communicating face-to-face, how much of the meaning is communicated verbally, and how much is communicated non-verbally? This was investigated by Albert Mehrabian and reported in two papers. The latter paper concluded: It is suggested that the combined effect of simultaneous verbal (i.e. spoken words), vocal (i.e. voice tone), and facial expression contribute 7%, 38%, and 55% respectively to the total meaning. In reality, however, it is extremely weakly founded.

When communicating, non-verbal messages can interact with verbal messages in six ways: repeating, conflicting, complementing, substituting, regulating and accenting / moderating.

5. Questions for Control on Lecture Five:

1. What is the starting moment of a communication?
2. What introductory remarks are possible in a science communication?
3. What are the objectives of the introduction?

4. What are the ways of getting the attention of an audience?
5. What are the objectives of the conclusion?
6. Why should a speaker use all channels to convey information?

B. The Practical-Class Mode

1. Questions to Be Discussed:

1. Means to set the first contact with an audience.
2. Means of attracting and keeping attention of the listeners.
3. Structure of a science communication.
4. Methods of delivering a speech.
5. Criteria of self-evaluation.

2. Practical Tasks to Do:

1. Check your knowledge of the verbs by matching them with the description of their meanings.

I			
1.	accept	A	put in order
2.	accomplish	B	reach by effort
3.	account for	C	decide the importance and give reasons
4.	achieve	D	have an influence on, act on
5.	adjust	E	agree or recognize with approval
6.	affect	F	make practical use of
7.	apply	G	regulate
8.	arrange	H	take as true before there is proof
9.	assess	I	perform successfully
10.	assume	J	explain the cause of

II			
1.	avoid	A	describe similarities or differences
2.	clarify	B	arrive at an opinion

3.	coincide	C	be similar in area and outline
4.	compare	D	keep away from
5.	complete	E	arrive at (knowledge, a theory) by reasoning
6.	concern	F	have relation to
7.	conclude	G	finish
8.	consider	H	make clear
9.	correspond	I	be in harmony
10.	deduce	J	think about, regard

III

1.	define	A	appear
2.	derive from	B	lay stress on
3.	determine	C	found, set up
4.	emerge	D	state precisely the meaning of
5.	emphasize	E	form a judgment about, calculate the value of
6.	ensure	F	find out precisely
7.	establish	G	guarantee
8.	estimate	H	take as a starting point, source or origin
9.	evaluate	I	concentrate on
10.	focus on	J	find out the value of

IV

1.	identify	A	keep up
2.	imply	B	become concerned with something
3.	include	C	point
4.	increase	D	pay no attention to
5.	indicate	E	make a careful study of
6.	infer	F	make a suggestion

7.	investigate	G	become greater in size
8.	involve	H	conclude
9.	maintain	I	bring in
10.	neglect	J	establish the identity of

V			
1.	observe	A	make
2.	obtain	B	go before
3.	occur	C	make smaller
4.	omit	D	give, supply
5.	perform	E	get
6.	precede	F	watch carefully
7.	proceed	G	go forward
8.	produce	H	do
9.	provide	I	leave out
10.	reduce	J	happen

VI			
1.	refer to	A	depend upon
2.	regard	B	give a result
3.	rely on	C	be enough for
4.	require	D	turn to for information, etc.
5.	satisfy	E	change position
6.	specify	F	make use of
7.	suppose	G	consider
8.	transfer	H	state or name definitely
9.	utilize	I	demand
10.	yield	J	guess, take as a fact

2. Below are the most frequently used English academic collocations. Try to find the proper Ukrainian equivalents to them.

give rise to	lay emphasis on
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shed light	contribute to understanding
have implications	submit the paper
provide clues	heighten the need
maintain the status quo	causal relationship
burning issues	key finding
taken for granted	preliminary results
draw conclusions	integral part
lie outside the scope	hotly debated issue
take into account	lack of consistency
place importance on	area / field of inquiry
draw on recent research	research site
laid the foundations	theoretical framework
corroborate the theory	background knowledge
extend the theories	theoretical considerations
fall into a category	reliable sources and data
provide further opportunities	

3. Translate into English using the academic collocations given in Task 2.

1. Дослідження в галузі біохімії є досить актуальними і мають велике як теоретичне, так і практичне значення.

2. Щоб стати рівноправним членом міжнародних наукових спільнот, студент повинен зосередитися на вивченні „Основ наукових комунікацій англійською мовою”. А як Ви вважаєте?

3. При написанні резюме слід особливу увагу звернути на опис своєї освіти.

4. Стаття не була опублікована, оскільки її автор знехтував правилами опису бібліографічних даних.

5. Я вважаю, що це наукове дослідження є досить актуальним.

6. Висновки впливають із аналізу та систематизації теоретичних положень.

7. Дозвольте підтвердити цю концепцію даними експериментального дослідження.

8. „Основи наукових комунікацій іноземною мовою” забезпечують студентів базовими знаннями, необхідними для написання наукового проекту.

9. Я не довіряю цьому джерелу інформації.

10. Дані, опубліковані в останньому номері наукового збірника, підтверджують методологію нашого дослідження.

11. Заповнюючи “Application form” не забувайте про відмінності вчених звань в Україні та за кордоном.

12. Я не довіряю цьому авторові, оскільки його висновки є необгрунтованими.

13. Додатки до наукової роботи включають таблиці, малюнки та діаграми.

14. Результати дослідження та їх апробація забезпечують основу їх впровадження в життя.

15. Наші точки зору на цю проблему не співпадають.

16. Ці факти не впливають на загальну картину експерименту.

17. Автор статті підкреслює, що цей період в історії України є найменш дослідженим.

18. Ви підтримуєте пояснення цього явища, запропоновані Вашим опонентом?

19. Визначення цього поняття впливає із аналізу відповідних явищ.

20. Кожен вчений повинен мати базові знання у своїй галузі.

4. The following sentences contain wide-spread academic collocations. However one component has been omitted. Fill in the blanks with the missing word.

1. The data he has found will shed _____ on theoretical assumptions.

2. The author of the article _____ on recent research to show how the goal of learning English vocabulary can be integrated into speaking activities.

3. Discourse analysis is a relatively new area / field of _____.

4. Few facts _____ the theory of virus nature of cancer.

5. Social and ideological crises usually give _____ to non-traditional religions and beliefs.

6. _____ of consistency in obtained data has led to their wrong interpretation.

7. Many scholars think that humankind _____ the problem of overpopulation.

8. Ecologists lay _____ on the consequences of air pollution and human utilization of natural resources.

9. Traditionally, Ukrainian higher education _____ importance on the development of wide erudition of students.

10. Philological research requires wide _____ knowledge in such related fields as history and philosophy.

11. The participants of the conference have raised many burning _____.

12. If you try to be as accurate as possible when learning a foreign language you _____ into a category of the analytic learner.

13. Recent research into virus nature has provided _____ to the causes of pneumonia.

14. The article offers _____ into the history of Ukrainian emigration to Canada.

15. Practical consequences of the research lie outside the _____ of this paper.

16. To arrive at valid conclusions, sociologists must use only _____ sources and data.

17. Space exploration in the second half of the 20-th century has essentially _____ to our understanding of the Universe.

18. For the purposes of this research this conception will be taken for _____.

19. Political and economic changes in Ukraine have _____ the need of society for highly qualified specialists.

20. The key _____ of the study suggest that high cortisol level in an individual may cause the symptoms of depression.

21. Cloning of animals _____ further opportunities for biological research.

22. Ancient philosophers laid _____ of educational principles of bringing up children in the family.

23. The conception of globalisation is a hotly _____ issue in many countries.

24. Professor Wise's theory has been chosen as a _____ framework of this investigation.

25. The tests have allowed the scientists to draw _____ about its possible risks and benefits.

26. You may try to _____ the paper to an international journal.

27. When investigating the origin of different disease, researchers take into _____ both hereditary and environmental factors.

28. To explain the new phenomena some researchers _____ the theories that already existed.

29. There is _____ relationship between the attraction of the moon and sea tides.

30. Political forces managed to maintain the _____.

THEME VI: Pragmatic aspect of language communication

A. The Teacher-Centred Mode

1. Lecture Plan:

1. Defining pragmatics.
2. Cooperation and implicature.
3. Hedges.
4. Speech acts and events.
5. Conditions for the performance of speech acts.
6. Direct and indirect speech acts.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Alston W. P. Illocutionary Acts and Sentence Meaning / William P. Alston. – Ithaca : Cornell University Press, 2000. – 385 p.
2. Bach K. Linguistic Communication and Speech Acts / Kent Bach, Robert M. Harnish. – Cambridge : Massachusetts : MIT Press, 1979. – 358 p.
3. Gazdar G. Pragmatics: Implicature, Presupposition and Logical Form / Gerald Gazdar. – New York : Academic Press, 1979. – 186 p.
4. Grice H. P. Studies in the Way of Words / H. Paul Grice. – Cambridge : Mass. : Harvard University Press, 1991. – 394 p.
5. Laurence R. H. The Handbook of Pragmatics / R. Horn Laurence, Gregory Ward. – Oxford : Blackwell, 2005. – 864 p.
6. Leech G. N. Principles of Pragmatics / Geoffrey N. Leech. – London : Longman, 1983. – 257 p.
7. Searle J. R. Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language / John R. Searle. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 1969. – 203 p.

8. Thomas J. *Meaning in Interaction: An Introduction to Pragmatics* / Jenny Thomas. – London : Longman, 1995. – 224 p.

9. Watzlawick P. *Pragmatics of Human Communication: A Study of Interactional Patterns, Pathologies, and Paradoxes* / Paul Watzlawick, Janet Helmick Beavin, Don D. Jackson. – New York : Norton, 1967. – 296 p.

10. Yule G. *Pragmatics* / George Yule. – Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1996. – 152 p.

3. *Glossary:*

Buzz Words

pragmatics	analysis
utterance	interpretation
context	syntax
semantics	cooperation
implicature	hedge
speech act	speech event

4. *Fundamentals:*

1. Defining pragmatics.

Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning.

Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning.

Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said.

Pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance.

Pragmatics is the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the users of those forms.

2. Cooperation and implicature.

Speakers and listeners involved in conversation are generally cooperating with each other. By participating in a conversation, a speaker implicitly signals that he or she agrees to cooperate in the

joint activity and agrees to follow the rules of conduct, which are called *Cooperative Principle*. This principle is elaborated by means of a set of maxims, which express what it means to cooperate in a conversational way: maxim of quality, maxim of quantity, maxim of relation and maxim of manner.

Implicature – additional conveyed meaning of an utterance.

3. Hedges.

Expressions speakers use to mark that they may be in danger of *not* fully adhering to the cooperative principles are called *hedges*.

4. Speech acts and events.

By producing utterances people not only share certain information, but also perform particular kinds of actions, such as stating, promising, or warning which have to be called *speech acts*.

It is important to distinguish between three sorts of thing that one is doing in the course of producing an utterance. These are usually distinguished by the terms *locutionary acts*, *perlocutionary acts*, *illocutionary acts*.

The speaker normally expects that his or her communicative intention will be recognized by the hearer. Both speaker and hearer are usually helped in this process by the circumstances surrounding the utterance. These circumstances, including other utterances, are called the *speech event*.

5. Conditions for the performance of speech acts.

There are several general classifications of types of speech acts. One general classification system lists five types of general functions performed by speech acts: declarations, representatives, expressives, directives, and commissives.

Conditions for the performance of speech acts are the following: felicity conditions, content conditions, preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions, essential conditions.

6. Direct and indirect speech acts.

A different approach to distinguishing types of speech acts can be made on the basis of structure. A fairly simple structural distinction between three general types of speech acts is provided, in English, by the three basic sentence types. There is a relationship between the three structural forms (declarative, interrogative, imperative) and the three general communicative functions (statement, question, command / request).

Whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function, we have a *direct speech act*. Whenever there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function, we have an *indirect speech act*. Thus, a declarative used to make a statement is a direct speech act, but a declarative used to make a request is an indirect speech act.

5. Questions for Control on Lecture Six:

1. What is pragmatics?
2. What is the essence of the *Cooperative Principle*?
3. What is implicature?
4. What is a speech act?
5. What are prerequisites for a successful performance of speech acts?
6. What is the difference between direct and indirect speech acts?

B. The Practical-Class Mode

1. Questions to Be Discussed:

1. Pragmatics.

2. Factors influencing a successful communication.
3. Direct and indirect speech acts.

2. Practical Tasks to Do:

1. Fill in the correct article where it is necessary.

1) _____ Great Wall of China is said to be _____ only man made structure seen from _____ space. 2) _____ Princess of Wales visited shelter for _____ homeless yesterday. 3) When we arrived at _____ Manchester Airport, Rachel was waiting for us at _____ arrivals gate. 4) Margaret Thatcher, who was _____ Prime Minister of Great Britain for 12 years is now known as _____ Baroness Thatcher of Kesteven. 5) In office where I work _____ most people have _____ degree in English, but my boss has _____ PhD in _____ astronomy. 6) When _____ government makes _____ bad mistake of judgement, electorate turns against it as soon as it feels _____ effect. 7) They sent me to _____ Amsterdam to try for _____ scholarship and I won it. 8) There is _____ great difference. 9) Sometimes there is _____ impression that _____ IMF is on _____ same side of the barricades with _____ forces which are out to reverse _____ course of development back to _____ Soviet times. 10) _____ Prime Minister's dismissal had been rumoured from _____ date of his appointment. 11) He worked for _____ year at _____ United Nations. 12) _____ Tate Gallery contains _____ unique collections of _____ British art. 13) Richard _____ Lion Heart lived in _____ England in _____ Middle Ages. 14) In Britain _____ newspaper industry, often called _____ Fleet Street, has _____ major influence on _____ public opinion and is _____ strong force in political life. 15) Old English was _____ typical Old Germanic Language with _____ purely Germanic vocabulary, and _____ few foreign borrowings. 16) _____ CV is like _____ argument in

which you are trying to persuade _____ reader to give you _____ interview. **17)** Americans talk about ‘going to college’ even if _____ institution they attend is _____ university. **18)** _____ Financial Times published _____ very interesting article about governmental foreign policy. **19)** _____ basic research is aimed at discovering _____ new knowledge. **20)** _____ result is _____ complicated interaction of _____ business and _____ society, and _____ key to understanding this interaction is _____ systems theory.

2. Identify the sentences with a mistake and correct it.

1. A number of U.S. lecturers comes to our University next week. **2.** Critically he studied the article on transgenic food products. **3.** As the annual report of the Mesa Garden states, these cactuses grow exclusively in the northern parts of Mexico. **4.** Either the journalist or the witness know the truth about this mysterious event. **5.** Elaborated will be in this paper the model of corrosive destruction of metals under lacquer-paint coatings. **6.** The teacher asked the students if they knew the health effects of insecticides. **7.** The premises of the library is cleaned every day. **8.** Twenty dollars are not enough to buy this book. **9.** Many mathematical symposiums are held in Europe every year. **10.** Bile acids contains significant amounts of cholesterol. **11.** This extremely interesting new Ukrainian historical novel has been favorably reviewed. **12.** In no case the work on the project will be terminated.

3. The impersonality of scientific writings implies frequent use of passive constructions. Put the verbs in brackets into correct passive form.

1. The comedy *Midsummer Night's Dream* _____ (write) by Shakespeare. **2.** Paul's application _____ (still, consider) by the directors. **3.** Next semester, the course of Scientific

communication _____ (teach) by Professor Watson. **4.** This cathedral _____ (visit) by hundreds of people every day. **5.** Ever since this castle _____ (build) it _____ (visit) by hundreds of tourists every year. **6.** When I turned on the radio the speech _____ (make) by the President. **7.** The country _____ (bring) to its knees by economic problems and political instability. **8.** Conference handouts as a genre _____ (not investigate) enough. **9.** Religious relativism _____ (often, criticize) by Cardinal Ratzinger. **10.** Sometimes the central problem can _____ (define) only in step-by-step argumentation. **11.** What reading rate can _____ (attain) by practice? **12.** Selling alcohol to people under 21 _____ (prohibit) in the USA. **13.** Who _____ the Mona Lisa _____ (paint) by? **14.** The museum _____ (open) before the foreign delegation arrived. **15.** This question _____ (agree) upon after a prolonged discussion. **16.** We _____ (inform) about the report to be made by our Professor at the meeting. **17.** Modern architecture _____ (characterize) by simplicity of line, austerity of design and neatness of appearance. **18.** To overcome these difficulties a great deal of experimental work _____ (carry out) by the leading specialists. **19.** I _____ (surprise) that I _____ (invite) to this party. **20.** What _____ (do) cannot _____ (undo). **21.** It is only when we _____ (deprive) of something that we appreciate the true value of it. **22.** What _____ (write) without effort, in general, _____ (read) without pleasure. **23.** Laws _____ (make) to be broken. **24.** We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men _____ (create) equal. **25.** The problem _____ still _____ (discuss). **26.** The road to hell _____ (pave) with good intentions. **27.** People in some 90 countries _____ (ask) to react to statements concerning the role of the English language. **28.** In no case the work on the project _____ (terminate). **29.** This theorem

_____ already _____ (prove) in Chapter 3. **30.** History knows several examples when countries _____ (rule) by de facto kings.

4. Capitalization is more frequent in the English language than in Ukrainian. The English rules of capitalization that differ from appropriate Ukrainian rules are as follows:

- capitalize the pronoun “I” but not “me, my, myself, mine”;
- capitalize the names of nationalities and appropriate adjectives;
- capitalize the adjectives formed from the names of continents (European);
- capitalize the titles of books, movies, music, but do not capitalize articles, conjunctions or prepositions unless they are the first word in the title;
- capitalize names of religion, religion bodies, and religion holidays;
- capitalize names of days and months;
- capitalize historic names, events, periods (the Middle Ages, Ukrainian Hetmanate)
- capitalize names of institutions (Central State Library)

Now, in the text below use capital letters, where necessary.

Peter mohyla arrived in kiev in 1627. Much to his dismay, he found the educational standards and approach at the bohojavlenske brotherhood school wanting. Unhappy with the type of education offered, he, then, a newly appointed archimandrite of the pecherska lavra, founded another school in the lavra in 1627-1628. This school was modeled on the western jesuit schools that included latin and polish to operate at the collegial level.

At first, the mohyla collegiate experienced a great deal of resistance from clerical circles. They saw this type of education as an innovation and latinization of the ruthenian greek slavonic school. In his spiritual testament of march 31, 1631 metropolitan

iov boretsky advised mohyla to establish his school “within the confines of the kiev brotherhood, not elsewhere”.

5. The ways of citing are quite diverse. However, several distinct patterns of using citations have already been identified. Thus, according to Swales and Feak (1994: 182-183), at least two-thirds of all citations fall into one of these three major patterns.

1. Citations with a cited author as an agent (a person who acts) of research activity. Reporting verbs in such citations are often in the past tense, e.g.:

Kotre (1995) *studied* the psychological research on autobiographical memory and then *re-examined* the life stories he had recorded over the years. The distribution of the seal in the Arctic Ocean was *described* by Wesley (1989).

However, if a cited source is important, the so-called “citational present” may be used:

In “White Gloves: How We Create Ourselves Through Memory” (1995), Kotre *explores* the power of autobiographical memory.

Overall, tense options in this pattern depend on how close cited research is to a citing author’s own investigation, opinion, or current state of knowledge. Compare:

T. Dickinson (1993) *discussed* a study of managers in large companies who claimed in interviews that they had equal chances for employment. T. Dickinson (1993) *has discussed* a study of managers in large companies who claimed in interviews that they had equal chances for employment. T. Dickinson (1993) *discusses* a study of managers in large companies who claimed in interviews that they had equal chances for employment.

2. Citations with reference to the activity of a researcher / researchers. In this pattern, the present perfect tense is usually used:

Possibly, most of these division-specific *proteins have now been identified* [51, 52]. The view that writing is typically a socially situated act *has been reinforced* by the aims and experiences of the recent Writing across the Curriculum Movement (Young and Fulwiler, 1986).

3. Citations with no reference to the activity of a researcher / researchers. Here, the present tense is used:

Rapid-reading instruction *has* certain effects for second language learners (Anderson, 1983; Mahon, 1986).

Since all human variation in both health and disease *is* to some extent genetic, all diseases *are* therefore genetic (Edwards 1988).

These three patterns do not embrace all possible ways of citing. Below are some additional examples of various author-prominent citing strategies, which you may find useful for your writing.

Major Reporting Verbs

Reporting verbs referring to the mental and physical processes that are part of research work	Reporting verbs referring to the mental processes which are expressed in the text
analyze, describe, discover, examine, explain, explore, find out, investigate, revise, study	affirm, allege, argue, assert, assume, believe, claim, contend, imply, presume

Note that some of the reporting verbs have an evaluative meaning.

Decide which reporting verbs in the sentences below have an evaluative meaning (some of them are not included into the Table).

1. In her chapter “Tense and Aspect in Context” K. Bardovi-Harlig advocates using authentic texts to teach tense and aspect.

2. Aldo Leopold claims that no important change in ethics was ever accomplished without an internal change in our affections and convictions.

3. Aceves (1999) discusses the dynamics of pulses in optical fibers.

4. Following the French linguist Guillaume, they argue that deep unifying principles, or core values, govern surface realizations of grammatical markers.

5. The author shows how functional grammar approaches are useful not only in teaching grammar per se but in teaching other skills such as reading and writing.

6. Akil (1995) alleges that a closer analogy to the brain function is a symphony.

7. Evans (2000) asserts that the child appears to develop both naturalistic and intentional beliefs about the origins of life.

8. Seasholtz (1995) presumes that experiments are needed to determine when and where the binding protein is expressed and what regulates binding protein levels.

9. Christie (1996) analyzes pedagogic discourse and its significance for a culture.

10. Hatta & Taya (1987) contend that critical parameters influencing the thermal stress field are the thermal expansion coefficients of the fiber and coating.

11. In this brochure, A. V. Petrov describes brightly fluorescent minerals and their major features.

C. The Individual Mode

1. Information to Be Studied:

1. Organizational factors (place and timing) of a science communication.

2. Communicative factors (verbal and nonverbal behavior) of a science communication.

3. Linguistic factors (voice and language) of a science communication.

4. Psychological factors (types of presenters, their bad habits and types of listeners) of a science communication.

2. List of Recommended Literature:

1. Анисимова Т. В. Современная деловая риторика: Учебное пособие / Т. В. Анисимова, Е. Г. Гимпельсон. – М. : Московский психолого-социальный институт; Воронеж : Издательство НПО „МОДЭК”, 2002. – 432 с. – (Серия „Библиотека студента”).

2. Данкел Ж. Ораторское искусство – путь к успеху / Ж. Данкел, Э. Парнхэм / пер. с англ. Т. Антончик. – СПб.; М.; Харьков; Минск : Питер Пресс, 1997. – 192 с. – (Серия „Бизнес без секретов”).

3. Красюк Н. Д. Ділове спілкування: проведення презентацій та написання звітів = Business Communication: Effective Presentations and Report Writing : навч. посіб. для студ. вищих навч. закл. / Красюк Н. Д.; Національний банк України; Львівський банківський ін-т. – Л. : ЛБІ НБУ, 2004. – 143 с.

4. Леонтьев А. А. Психологические особенности деятельности лектора / А. А. Леонтьев. – М. : Знание, 1981. – 80 с. – (Серия „Методика лекторского мастерства и ораторского искусства”).

5. Мацько Л. І. Риторика : навч. посіб. / Л. І. Мацько, О. М. Мацько – К. : Вища школа, 2003. – 311 с.

6. Панфилова А. П. Деловая коммуникация в профессиональной деятельности : учебное пособие / А. П. Панфилова, Санкт-Петербургский ин-т

внешнеэкономических связей, экономики и права; Общество „Знание” Санкт-Петербурга и Ленинградской области. – СПб., 2001. – 496 с.

7. Романов А. А. Грамматика деловых бесед / А. А. Романов. – Тверь : Фамилия ; Печатное дело, 1995. – 240 с.

8. Сопер П. Л. Основы искусства речи / Поль Л. Сопер. – 2 испр. изд. – М. : Прогресс ; Прогресс-Академия, 1992. – 416 с.

9. Томан І. Мистецтво говорити / Іржі Томан. – К. : Політвидав України, 1986. – 223 с.

10. Фалькович Э. М. Искусство лектора / Э. М. Фалькович. – М. : Государственное издательство политической литературы, 1960. – 262 с.

11. Чихачев В. П. Речевое мастерство пропагандиста / В. П. Чихачев. – М. : Московский рабочий, 1987. – 141 с. – (Беседы о пропагандистском мастерстве).

12. Byrns J. H. Speak for yourself: An Introduction to Public Speaking / James Henderson Byrns. – 3-d edition. – New York : McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1994. – 329 p.

13. Maley A. The Language Teacher's Voice / Alan Maley. – Oxford : Macmillan Heinemann English Language Teaching, 2000. – 84 p.

14. Woodward T. Models and Metaphors in Language Teacher Training: Loop input and other strategies / Tessa Woodward. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 1991. – 247 p.

3. Practical Tasks to Do:

1. Eye contact is considered to be the most important aspect of nonverbal communication. Do you feel that assertion is correct? Why?

2. *You are giving a speech and observing the audience for nonverbal feedback on your message. How can you tell when they understand the message? How can you tell if they don't understand it? How can you tell when they are interested? Uninterested? What other kinds of feedback can you observe?*

3. *Give reasons why developing one's natural speaking style is so important.*

4. *Here are some rules for using body language to communicate your message clearly and persuasively. Discuss them and add some others to the list.*

Eye contact

- Maintain good eye contact with different people in the audience.

- Use facial expressions to emphasize your feelings.

Hands

- Use your hands to emphasize what you say.

- Keep hands out of pockets.

- Hold a pen or a pointer if you feel more comfortable, but don't play with it.

Movement

- Don't stand completely still – a little movement between table and board is more interesting.

- Don't move around too much, or the audience may watch you instead of listening to you.

Posture

- Try to keep your posture upright but relaxed.

- Look straight ahead, but not down at the floor or up at the ceiling.

5. *Watch a variety of television programmes. Observe some television personalities and make some notes describing their body*

language. Say whether you think their mannerisms help them to get their message across.

6. Listen to some popular radio talks. How do they use their voices to communicate.

7. Write suitable headings for the groups of phrases to summarize what each is signaling.

Moving to the next point

Reaching the end of a point

Giving an example

Sequencing

Summarizing / concluding

Developing / analyzing a point

Introducing the topic

Dealing with questions

1. _____

5. _____

Let me start by...

For example, ...

I'll start by...

A good example of this is...

First of all. I'll...

To illustrate this point, ...

2. _____

6. _____

Right, I've told you about...

I'll deal with this later, if may, but for now...

We've looked at...

That's all I have to say about...

I'll come back to this question later in my talk.

I won't comment on this now, ...

3. _____

7. _____

Let me turn now to...

Let's recap, shall we?

Let's look now at...

I'd like to sum up now...

Next...

Let me summarize briefly what I've said.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 4. _____ | 8. _____ |
| Where does it take us? | Firstly... secondly... lastly... |
| Let's look at this in more detail. | First of all... then... next... after that... finally |
| Translated into real terms, ... | To start with... later... to finish up... |

8. Choose one of the topics below. Prepare your arguments for or against the topic. Use appropriate body language and emphasize / minimizers to make your points a) strongly, and b) more tentatively.

- We all need strong leaders.
- People should retire earlier to create more jobs for the youth.
- Studying from home becomes common in the 21st century.

9. Take a brief excerpt from a textbook or professional journal, and rewrite the material in a clear and specific manner that would be easily understood by the average person.

10. Prepare and give a short talk on a subject you feel strongly about. Use language, body language and intonation to communicate your message clearly and persuasively. Use the following Checklist during your preparation.

Checklist. Body Language

1. Do you talk to the audience, or to the screen behind you?
2. Do you actively seek eye contact with specific members of the audience? Do you sweep over them or fix them with your eye?
3. Do you know who the decision makers are, and speak primarily to them?
4. Do you tend to concentrate on looking to the right or left, to the front or back of the audience?
5. Are your gestures congruent with your message? Too exaggerated? Are you too stiff?
6. Do you have any distracting mannerism?

7. Do you point at the audience? Wag your finger?
8. Are your movements simple? Or do you pace like a caged tiger?
9. Are you natural? Are you yourself?
10. Do you create barriers between you and your audience?

Checklist

- General appearance
- Stance and posture
- Hands – position
- Hands – gestures
- Eye contact
- Facial expression
- Movement

MODULE TESTS

VARIANT 1

1. Below are some of the most frequently used “scientific words” (in the left column). Match them with the descriptions of their meaning in the right column.

1) clarify	a) turn to information, etc.
2) concern	b) become greater in size
3) increase	c) make clear
4) refer to	d) pay no attention to
5) neglect	e) have relation to

2. Pick out the synonyms to words from the list provided:

concern, consider, depend, supply, give, regard, rely on, provide.

3. Complete the sentences with one of the most suitable academic collocation from the list:

- a) maintain the status quo
- b) lay the foundations of
- c) hotly debated issue

1. N. Bohr, the outstanding Danish physicist _____ the nuclear phenomena theory.

2. The reforming of the Ukrainian system of education is _____ in the Ministry of Education.

3. The recent elections have shown that political forces managed to _____.

4. Choose the most suitable logical connector out of the two given in each sentence (underline it).

1. Writing is especially difficult for nonnative speakers (because / even though) they are expected to demonstrate mastery of all the aspects of a foreign language.

2. A crucial event in the historical evolution of scientific English was (due to / in spite of) the birth of a scientific journal.

5. *Below is the list of some the most frequently used Latin abbreviations and expressions (in the left column). Match them with the meanings and explanations in the right column.*

1) cf.	a) genuine(ly), sincere(ly), in good faith
2) ibid.	b) something considered alone
3) bona fide	c) compare
4) a priori	d) reasoning that precedes experience
5) per se	e) the same as previous reference

6. *Having studied carefully the referencing formats of the items in the list of references, define, which of them is:*

- a) reference to a book;
- b) reference to a chapter in a book;
- c) reference to an article in a journal

1. Reid, W. V. (1992). "How many species will there be?" In Whitmore, T. C. and J. A. Sayer, (eds.), *Tropical Deforestation and Species Extinction*. – London : Chapman and Hall.

2. Galtung, J. (1971). "A structural theory of imperialism". *Journal of Peace Research*, 8 (2), 81-117.

3. Kusko, K (Ed.) 1996. *Linhvodydactychna Organizatsiia Navchalnoho Protsehu z Inozemnykh Mov* [Linguistic and Didactic organization of Teaching Foreign Languages]. – Lviv : Svit.

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____

7. *Identify sentences with mistakes and correct them:*

1. I have not got many luggage with me prefer to travel light.
2. Five me more pencil, this is two small.
3. When he was a ten-years-old boy, he became interested in singing and writing poetry.

8. Write a short summary of the article, following all the steps of summarizing process.

VARIANT 2

1. Below are some of the most frequently used “scientific words” (in the left column). Match them with the descriptions of their meaning in the right column.

1) accept	a) agree or recognize with approval
2) conclude	b) to find out the value of
3) evaluate	c) make a careful study of
4) investigate	d) concentrate on
5) focus on	e) arrive at an opinion

2. Pick out the synonyms to words from the list provided:
finish, affect, regulate, assume, keep away, complete, adjust, influence

3. Complete the sentences with a suitable missing word in the widespread academic collocations:

- | | | |
|---------------|------------|----------|
| a) status quo | c) rise | e) light |
| b) clues | d) account | |

1. Social and ideological crises give _____ to nontraditional religions and beliefs.

2. The data he has found will shed _____ on theoretical assumptions.

3. Researchers took into _____ both hereditary and environmental factory.

4. Choose the most suitable logical connector out of the two given in each sentence (underline it).

Writing is a difficult skill for native speakers and nonnative speakers (alike / accordingly), (thus / because) writers must balance such issues as content, purpose, audience, vocabulary, spelling.

5. Below is the list of some the most frequently used Latin abbreviations and expressions (in the left column). Match them with the meanings and explanations in the right column.

1) A.D.	a) by a more convincing argument
2) vs.	b) according to law
3) de jure	c) against
4) a fortiori	d) in the year of our Lord
5) ab ovo	e) from the beginning

6. Having studied carefully the referencing formats of the items in the list of references, define, which of them is:

- a) reference to a book;
- b) reference to a chapter in a book;
- c) reference to an article in a journal

1. Fairclough, N (1989). Language and Power. – London : Longman.

2. Dienes, J. K. On the analysis of rotation and stress rate in deforming bodies. – Acta Mech. 33, 217–232 (1979).

3. Woods, S. (1996). Coor's ten ways to prevent pollution by design. In: J. Fiksel (ed.), Design for Environment. – McGraw-Hill, New York.

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____

7. Identify sentences with mistakes and correct them:

1. People choose the names of the week long, long ago in the days when they worshipped a different god each day.

2. He felt quite lost and slow walked along the streets not knowing what to do.

3. There's one programme which they claim has ten millions viewers and it is worth seeing on TV.

8. Write a short summary of the article, following all the steps of summarizing process.

VARIANT 3

1. Below are some of the most frequently used "scientific words" (in the left column). Match them with the descriptions of their meaning in the right column.

1) correspond	a) explain the cause of
2) identify	b) take as a starting point, source of origin
3) account for	c) be in harmony
4) precede	d) establish the identity of
5) derive from	e) go before

2. Pick out the synonyms to words from the list provided:
demand, require, indicate, supply, adjust, concern, point to, regulate

3. Complete the sentences with a suitable missing word in the widespread academic collocations:

a) place importance on; b) submit the paper to; c) take for granted

1. For the purposes of this research, this conception will be _____.

2. Traditionally, _____ Ukrainian higher education _____ the development of wide erudition of students.

3. You may try _____ to an international journal.

4. Choose the most suitable logical connector out of the two given in each sentence (underline it).

1. (Since / otherwise) electronic communications are global and the Internet has no borders, this technology (that is / therefore) creates many opportunities for cultural exchange...

2. (Even though / as a matter of fact) electronic transfer of information is rather important to education.

5. Below is the list of some the most frequently used Latin abbreviations and expressions (in the left column). Match them with the meanings and explanations in the right column.

1) et ab.	a) list of errors, misprints in printed book
2) N.B.	b) and other authors
3) errata	c) per head (e.g. per capita income)
4) per capita	d) take notes
5) prorata	e) in proportion

6. Having studied carefully the referencing formats of the items in the list of references, define, which of them is:

a) reference to a book;

b) reference to a chapter in a book;

c) reference to an article in a journal

1. Galperin, I. R. (1977). Stylistics. – Moscow : Vysshaya Shkola.

2. Hamlyk, D. W. (1998). Perception and Reality: A History from Descartes to Kant. The Philosophical Quarterly, 48 (193). – P. 540–542.

3. Lejeune, L. (2000). Metonymy in Language and Thought by. – K. – U. Panther and G. Radden. Pragmatics.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

7. *Identify sentences with mistakes and correct them:*

1. I have not studied no other foreign languages besides English.

2. My son and I can cover many miles by foot.

3. Soft fruit will give you except a lot of pleasure, a source of vitamins.

8. *Write a short summary of the article, following all the steps of summarizing process.*

VARIANT 4

1. *Below are some of the most frequently used “scientific words” (in the left column). Match them with the descriptions of their meaning in the right column.*

1) compare	a) make a suggestion
2) deduce	b) arrive at theory by reasoning
3) imply	c) describe similarities or differences
4) perform	d) find out the value of
5) evaluate	e) do

2. *Pick out the synonyms to words from the list provided:*
emphasize, obtain, explore, stress on, investigate, set up, get, establish

3. *Complete the sentences with a suitable missing word in the widespread academic collocations:*

1) lie outside the scope; 2) fall into category; 3) research site

1. If you try to be as accurate as possible, when learning a foreign language, you _____ of the analytic learner.

2. Practical consequences of the research _____ of this paper.

3. The laboratory is _____ of biologists and chemists.

4. Choose the most suitable logical connector out of the two given in each sentence (underline it).

1. The Internet (whereas / as a matter of fact) has made English the Latin of the modern world.

2. (Clearly / as long as), there was a good deal of trade among various tribes and formal relations with neighbors – both friendly and hostile.

5. Below is the list of some the most frequently used Latin abbreviations and expressions (in the left column). Match them with the meanings and explanations in the right column.

1) B.C.	a) existing by fact, not by law or right
2) p.m.	b) in its original place
3) de facto	c) before Chris
4) in situ	d) after noon
5) i.e.	e) that is to say

6. Having studied carefully the referencing formats of the items in the list of references, define, which of them is:

- a) reference to a book;
- b) reference to a chapter in a book;
- c) reference to an article in a journal.

1. Millrood, R. (1999). How native English speakers can be better teachers in Russia. The Internet TESL journal 5 (1). December 18, 2002.

2. Phillopson, R. (1992). Linguistic Imperialism. – Oxford : Oxford University Press.

3. Beaugrande, Robert. (1995). Text Linguistics. Handbook of Pragmatic Manual. – Amsterdam : John Benjamins. – P. 536–544.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

7. Identify sentences with mistakes and correct them:

1. Newton carried out several experiences on light and color.
2. There is a Bach's violin concerto on the radio this evening.
3. Children are particular vulnerable; pictures to them are terrifying and compelling in a way that words are not.

8. Write a short summary of the article, following all the steps of summarizing process.

MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST

1. A scientific presentation is ...

a) an impartial scientific information about the solution of a definite problem or a project presentation;

b) a prepared professionally directed speech which is based on the results of generalization of information, research of a definite problem, contains the solution of the difficulty, has a clear logical structure and certain aim;

c) means of persuasion.

2. The purpose of any type of a professional presentation is:

a) to persuade;

b) to inform;

c) motivate.

3. An effective presentation is characterized by:

a) a positive psychological atmosphere;

b) fascination, richness of content, stored data, stirring up, equilibrium;

c) a good structure, use of visual aids.

4. During a presentation one must pay attention to:

a) the structure of the speech and the audience;

b) the own condition, behavior and appearance;

c) all of these.

5. According to the "AIDA" model at any presentation the speaker should solve three tasks:

a) inform, persuade and motivate the audience;

b) prepare the information, structure the presentation, inform the audience;

c) attract and hold attention, arouse interest, generate intention and call to the action.

6. *During a presentation the presenter can influence:*

- a) voluntary attention of the listeners;
- b) involuntary attention of the listeners;
- c) both.

7. *According to the rule of Three:*

a) a presenter has three minutes to attract the audience's attention;

b) there are three factors which influence any presentation;

c) an effective presentation includes not more than three key points.

8. *Reasons of speech anxiety depend on:*

- a) a presenter;
- b) the audience;
- c) both.

9. *Speech anxiety – it is:*

- a) a barrier;
- b) energy;
- c) both.

10. *While preparing a presentation one should:*

a) collect and select necessary information, prepare visuals, record the information;

b) analyse the audience, familiarize himself with the setting, know the timing, choose the topic, determine the general purpose of the speech, formulate the specific purpose of the speech, collect and select necessary information, prepare visuals, record the information;

c) analyse the audience, familiarize himself with the setting, determine the general purpose of the speech, formulate the specific purpose of the speech, collect and select necessary information, prepare visuals.

11. The process of a presentation planning is controlled by:

- a) demography;
- b) suppositions;
- c) questions.

12. Planning is an integral part of a presenting process because thanks to it a presenter:

- a) demonstrates analytical skills;
- b) considers factors which influence issue of the presentation;
- c) guesses variable components which influence the presentation estimation.

13. The most effective visual aids are:

- a) colourful, original, vivid;
- b) those which contain three-dimensional diagrams;
- c) those which contain audio.

14. The main task of visual aids is:

- a) to make a presentation more colourful and interesting;
- b) to explain statistics;
- c) to be a support for a presentation.

15. One of the advantages of visuals is:

- a) they highlight the main points;
- b) they increase information content which may be remembered;
- c) they demonstrate the presenter's artistic skills.

16. The size of the room is a factor which one should consider when decides:

- a) how to adapt the visuals to the room.
- b) what colours to use.
- c) what kinds of visuals to use.

17. The widespread reason of the audience's resistance is:

- a) doubt or distrust;
- b) bad lighting in the room;
- c) use of emotional expressions.

18. The speaker who is anxious for productive communication with the listeners cares about:

- a) the succession of the parts of the speech;
- b) the audience;
- c) arguments.

19. The general impression of you and your presentation depends on:

- a) the introduction and conclusion of the presentation;
- b) the body of the presentation;
- c) the presenter's readiness and behaviour.

20. Speaking about child abuse the presenter mentioned several facts which were reported the previous year. The best way to use statistics is:

- a) two times more than previous year;
- b) every day 53 kids are abused and these are only those cases we know about;
- c) 193545 cases in the last year.

21. If the presenter doesn't know the answer to a question he should:

- a) ignore the question;
- b) acknowledge it;
- c) acknowledge it, promise to find the answer and get to know the questioner.

KEYS

- | | | |
|------|-------|-------|
| 1. b | 8. a | 15. b |
| 2. a | 9. c | 16. c |
| 3. b | 10. b | 17. a |
| 4. c | 11. c | 18. b |
| 5. c | 12. b | 19. a |
| 6. c | 13. a | 20. b |

7. c

14. c

21. c

CREDIT QUESTIONS ON FUNDAMENTALS OF SCIENCE COMMUNICATION

1. Communication Theory.
2. Methods and Main Lines of Research in Communicative Studies.
3. Definition of Communication.
4. Typology of Communication.
5. Structure and types of science communication.
6. History of science communication.
7. Linear Model of Communication: Lasswell's Model.
8. Linear Model of Communication: Shannon & Weaver's Model.
9. Interactive Model of Communication: Schramm's Model
10. Non-linear models of Communication: Helical Model.
11. Non-linear models of Communication: Becker's Mosaic Model.
12. Multidimensional model of communication: Ruesch and Bateson Functional Model.
13. Multidimensional model of communication: Barnlund's Transactional Model.
14. Spoken versus Written Language.
15. Lexical Density.
16. The Process of Conversation.
17. Direct and Indirect Speech Acts.
18. Means to set the first contact with an audience.
19. Opening Conversations Techniques.
20. Maintaining Conversation.
21. Means of attracting and keeping attention of the listeners.
22. The Nature of Verbal / Non-Verbal Messages.
23. The Relative Importance of Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication.

24. Speech Acts and Events.
25. Conditions for the Performance of Speech Acts.
26. Types of scientific presentations.
27. Reasons for speech anxiety and ways of its overcoming.
28. Selecting a topic, determining the general and specific purposes of a science communication.
29. The audience analysis.
30. Settings familiarization.
31. Material gathering, selection and handling.
32. Prepared and extemporaneously speaking.
33. Visuals in a science communication
34. Organizational factors (place and timing) of a science communication.
35. Communicative factors (verbal and nonverbal behavior) of a science communication.
36. Linguistic factors (voice and language) of a science communication.
37. Psychological factors (types of presenters, their bad habits and types of listeners) of a science communication.
38. Criteria of self-evaluation.
39. Pragmatics.
40. Cooperation and Implicature.

Навчальне видання

Моркотун С.Б., Башманівський О.Л., Вигівський В.Л.

ОСНОВИ НАУКОВОЇ КОМУНІКАЦІЇ ІНОЗЕМНОЮ МОВОЮ

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